

UNIVERSITY OF MYSORE

# HISTORY OF KANNADA LANGUAGE

(READERSHIP LECTURES)

39287

BY

**Praktana Vimarsa Vichakshana Mahamahopadhyaya  
Rao Bahadur**

**R. NARASIMHACHARYA, M.A., M.R.A.S.,**

*Hony. Correspondent of the Government of India Archaeological Department,  
Director of Archaeological Researches in Mysore (Retired)  
Author of Karnataka-Kavi-Charite Volumes I—III,  
Nitimanjari Pts. I and II, Sasanapadyamanjari,  
Nagegadalu, Nitivakyamanjari, etc.*

494.81409

Nas



PRINTED AT MYSORE  
BY THE ASST. SUPDT., GOVT. BRANCH PRESS

1934

CENTRAL ARCHAEOLOGICAL  
LIBRARY, NEW DELHI.

Acc. No. 39207

Date. 12-63

Call No. 494.81409/Nar

CENTRAL ARCHAEOLOGICAL  
LIBRARY, NEW DELHI.

Acc. No. 126

Date. 17.3.53

Call No. 894.814/Nar

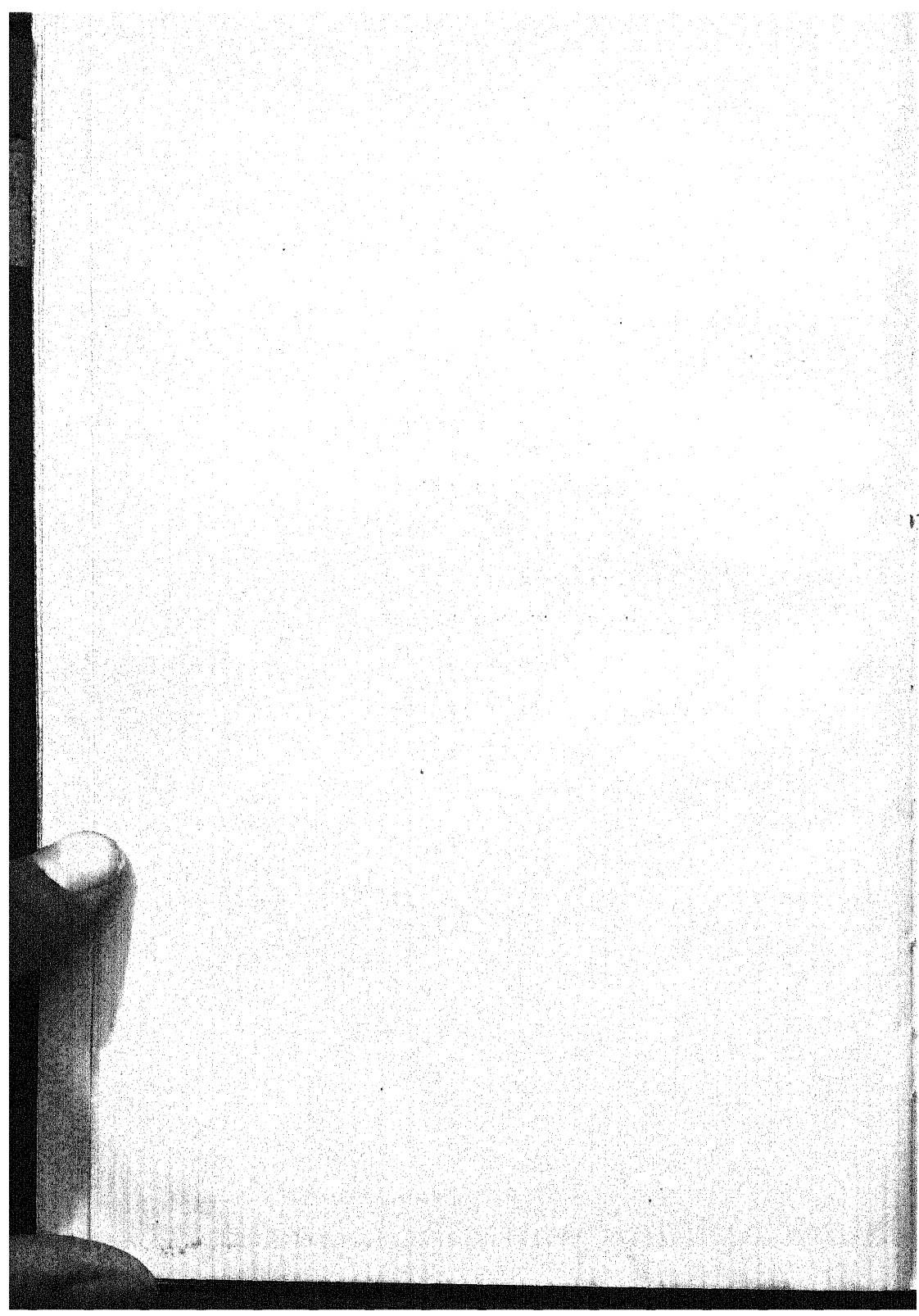


DEDICATED  
BY GRACIOUS PERMISSION

TO

HIS HIGHNESS  
SRI KRISHNARAJA WADIYAR BAHADUR,  
G.C.S.I., G.B.E.,

CHANCELLOR, UNIVERSITY OF MYSORE



## PREFACE.

---

AT the request of the Mysore University I delivered ten Readership Lectures, five on the History of Kannada Language and five on the History of Kannada Literature. The lectures on the History of Kannada Language were delivered in Mysore at the close of November and the beginning of December 1926, and the same were repeated in Bangalore in January 1927. The lectures on the History of Kannada Literature were delivered in Mysore in March 1928 and were repeated in Bangalore in August of the same year.

In 1933 the University undertook the publication of the substance of the course on the History of the Kannada Language in the present work.

The conditions under which the book has been issued permitted only a limited time for revision and editing, to which circumstance must be attributed certain short-comings of which I am conscious.

My thanks are due to Mr. M. Venkatesa Iyengar, M.A., for supplying certain figures regarding population speaking Dravidian Languages. I have also to acknowledge the assistance rendered by my son Mr. R. Tirunarana Iyengar, B.A., in preparing the Index.

I have in conclusion to express my indebtedness to the authorities of the Mysore University for having given me an opportunity to deliver these Readership Lectures.

MALLESWARAM, }  
25th January 1934. }

R. NARASIMHACHAR.



# CONTENTS.

## CHAPTER I.

PAGE

Languages, their classification. Dravidian languages. Their affiliation to Indo-European and Scythian families. Dravidian languages form an isolated group. The term Drāviḍa old. Drāviḍa, its different senses. Derivation of Drāviḍa. Dravidians, their civilisation. Recent discoveries. Region of Dravidian languages. Enumeration of Dravidian languages. The Pancha-Drāviḍa. Where spoken. Number of speakers. General characteristics of Dravidian languages. Affinity of Behistun tablets to Dravidian languages. Dravidian group different from Sanskrit. Influence of Sanskrit and the Aryan vernaculars on the Dravidian group. Dravidian influence on Sanskrit and the Aryan vernaculars. Difference between Gaudian and Dravidian languages. Lexical affinities in Dravidian languages. Dravidian tongues of Southern India. Tamil. Malayālam. Telugu. Kannaḍa. Antiquity of the name Kannaḍa. Wrong use of the name Karṇāṭaka. Derivation of Karṇāṭa or Kannaḍa. Antiquity of the Kannaḍa language. Kannaḍa closely related to Tamil. Dialects of Kannaḍa: Tōḍa, Kōṭa. Baḍaga, Tuḷu and Koḍagu. Lexical affinities in Kannaḍa and its dialects. Number of speakers of Kannaḍa and its dialects

1

## CHAPTER II.

History of the Kannaḍa language. Scope of History of language. State of Dravidian philology in Southern India. Indian and European scholars. The range of Kannaḍa about a thousand years ago. Its influence in the Telugu country. Kannaḍigas: their civilisation. Phonology. The alphabet. Derivation from the Aśōka alphabet. Points of agreement and difference between the Kannaḍa and Tamil alphabets. Phonetic system. Help of Tamil in determining

words containing <i>r</i> and <i>l</i> . Euphonic combination.	PAGE
Vocalic harmony. Dialectic interchange. Inter- change of vowels. Interchange of consonants ...	41

### CHAPTER III.

#### GRAMMAR.

Inflection of nouns. Gender and number. Case. The nominative. Inflexional increments. The second case. The third and fifth cases. The fourth case. The sixth case. The seventh case. The vocative case. Adjectives. Numerals. Pronouns. Inclusive and exclusive. Verbs. Roots. Pronominal termi- nations. The past and future tenses. The present tense. The negative mood. Causative verbs. Appellative verbs. The imperative. The infinitive. The relative participle. The verbal participle. The passive voice. Indeclinables. Formation of words. Verbal nouns. Participial nouns. Abstract nouns. Derivative nouns. Compound nouns ...	69
---	----

### CHAPTER IV.

Vocabulary. Dēṣya. Tatsama and Tadbhava. Tadbhava from Prakrit and Tamil. Anyadēṣya. Portuguese, Persian, Maharāṭhi, Arabic, Hindustāni, English. Sanskrit Avyayas. Northern and Southern Schools in Kannaḍa. R. Raghunatha Rao's Plea of Telugu influence. Controversy with him on three suggested points. Stages of the Kannaḍa language. Primi- tive Old Kannaḍa. Haḷagannaḍa or Old Kannaḍa. Mediæval Kannaḍa. Modern Kannaḍa. Forms once condemned have become current. Explanation of Kēṣirāja's 60th Sūtra ...	108
---	-----

### CHAPTER V.

Changes in the language. Changes in form. Phonetic decay. Emphasis. Prosthesis. Compensation. Ana- logy. Assimilation. Metathesis. Changes in mean- ing. Extension. Contraction. Amelioration. De- terioration. Decency. Euphemism. Freemasonry in words. Extension by metaphor. Changes in form of Old Kannaḍa words when becoming Modern Kannaḍa. Mistakes committed by authors. Some general remarks on the language. Disappearance
--

of old and entry of new words. Words not found in classical literature but current in common speech. Some lost words that deserve restoration. Some words which are seemingly correct. False etymology. Forms given in Kannaḍa grammars. Tamil rules of euphonic combination adopted in Kannaḍa. Help of Tamil in the derivation of some Kannaḍa words. Words about whose derivation Grammarians differ. Reform of the language. Advancement of the language	...	...	...	...	PAGE 137
Works consulted	...	...	...	...	157
Index	...	...	...	...	159

---





# ERRATA.

PAGE	LINE		
21	13	<i>for</i> participles	<i>read</i> nouns
23	19	" <i>ni</i>	" <i>nī</i>
24	34	" derivations	" derivatives
26	last	" participles	" particles
31 39-40	"	"	"
39	1	" Irula	" Irula
40	3	" Sidi	" Sidil
55	22	" <i>lri</i>	" <i>lri</i>
57	20	" <i>ta</i>	" <i>ta</i>
58	18	" <i>Tamil Kannada</i>	" <i>Tamil and Kannada.</i>
62	33	" ಅಚ್ಚಿ ಅಚ್ಚಿ ; ಅಚ್ಚಿ ಅಚ್ಚಿ	" ಅಚ್ಚಿ ಅಚ್ಚಿ ಅಚ್ಚಿ
63	19	" ಏನುಗು	" ಏನುಗು
69	13	" Com-pound	" Compound
73	15	" ಪಲವಹು'	" ಪಲವಹು'
81	15	" in	" on
84	last	" in	" on
88	34	" roots	" some roots
	35	" some or	" or
89	23	" ಪೋರ್ ಪೋಲು	" ಪೋರ್ ಪೋಲು
	24	" ಅಲಮಗು	" ಅಲಮರು
93	14	" ಹು	" ಹು
94	10	" ಅ, ಅನ,	" ಅ ಅನ.
98	6	" ಅಡೇನಿ	" ಅಡೇನಿ.
	20	" ಚೇಯಕ	" ಚೇಯಕ,
103	19	" ಕೊಟ್ಟು ದುರು,	" ಕೊಟ್ಟು ದುರು
	22	" ಕೊಟ್ಟೆನು,	" ಕೊಟ್ಟೆನು ;
107	22	" ಗುಟ್ಟುಮು	" ಗುಟ್ಟುಮು
110	24	" ಅರುವಮು	" ಅರುವಮು
111	35	" cupid	" Cupid
112	9	" ಕಂಬು ಕೊಂಬು	" ಕೊಂಬು
129	31	" 88,	" 88.

PAGE	LINE		
129	34	<i>for</i> 27,	<i>read</i> 27.
130	3	„ Jayasangraha,	„ Jayasangraha.
	5	„ Bādāmi,	„ Bādāmi.
140	23	„ ಏವು	„ ಎವ್ವು
141	18	„ ಮರಕ್ಕಾರ್	„ ಮರಕ್ಕಾರ್,
145	5	„ ಪೊಗು	„ ಕೊಗು
	29	„ old	„ Old
	34	„ Also	„ also
151	8	„ Timil	„ Tamil
152	33	„ i,	„ i, 7

# HISTORY OF KANNADA LANGUAGE

---

## CHAPTER I.

Languages, their classification. Dravidian languages. Their affiliation to Indo-European and Scythian families. Dravidian languages form an isolated group. The term Drāviḍa old. Drāviḍa, its different senses. Derivation of Drāviḍa. Dravidians, their civilisation. Recent discoveries. Region of Dravidian languages. Enumeration of Dravidian languages. The Pancha-Drāviḍa. Where spoken. Number of speakers. General characteristics of Dravidian languages. Affinity of Behistun tablets to Dravidian languages. Dravidian group different from Sanskrit. Influence of Sanskrit and the Aryan vernaculars on the Dravidian group. Dravidian influence on Sanskrit and the Aryan vernaculars. Difference between Gaudian and Dravidian languages. Lexical affinities in Dravidian languages. Dravidian tongues of Southern India. Tamil. Malayālam. Telugu. Kannaḍa. Antiquity of the name Kannaḍa. Wrong use of the name Karnāṭaka. Derivation of Karnāṭa or Kannaḍa. Antiquity of the Kannaḍa language. Kannaḍa closely related to Tamil. Dialects of Kannaḍa: Tōḍa, Kōṭa, Baḍaga, Tulu and Koḍagu. Lexical affinities in Kannaḍa and its dialects. Number of speakers of Kannaḍa and its dialects.

LANGUAGES were divided by the philologists of a previous generation into three families, namely, the Aryan or Indo-European, the Turanian or Scythian and the Semitic. This division has, however, been found to be not only incomplete, inasmuch as it does not take into account the Chinese language and the numerous languages of America and Africa, but also scientifically incorrect, as the distribution of languages by families is based on the supposition,

expressed or implied, of ethnical union at some very remote period. But race and language are not convertible terms. The science of language and the science of ethnology ought not to be mixed up together; they should be kept quite independent of each other. "Any attempt at squaring the classification of races and tongues must necessarily fail."\* Language is the test of social contact and not of racial kinsmanship. Tribes and races lose their own tongues and adopt those of others. The Aryan Brāhmans of Southern India speak Dravidian languages. The Kelts of Cornwall speak English; the non-Aryan population of Wales and Ireland either Keltic or Saxon; and the Jews the manifold languages of the countries they inhabit. "Race in physiology and race in philology are two totally different things. Races physiologically as distinct as the Mongols and the Turks may be found speaking allied tongues, while races physiologically related, like the Jews of Europe and the Bedouins of Arabia, may be found speaking unallied ones. So far as ethnology is concerned, identity or relationship of language can do no more than raise a presumption in favour of a common racial origin. If ethnology demonstrates kinship of race, kinship of speech may be used to support the argument; but we cannot reverse the process and argue from language to race. Language, in fact, is not one of the characteristics of race, not one of those fixed and permanent features which distinguish the different ethnological types of man."† But it is satisfactory to note that the attempt made in the infancy of linguistic science to reduce groups of languages to a mystical triad has long since been abandoned by the scientific student.

The principle of the classification of languages now adopted by philologists is the morphological, *i.e.*, the one based on their grammatical structure. According to the morphological classification, languages differ from

\* Max Muller: *Science of Language*, I, 458.

† Sayce: *Introduction to the Science of Language*, II, 315-18.

one another in the structure of the sentence and the grammatical relation of its parts. The forms of grammar are the expression of the mental life and history of a people ; so the formative part of a language must ever be the surest *differentia* of linguistic kinship.\* "The life and soul of a language, that which constitutes its substantial individuality, and distinguishes it from all others, is its grammar. It is the only decisive evidence of the relationship between languages."† Morphologically, then, languages have been divided into five groups, namely, isolating, agglutinative, inflectional, polysynthetic and incorporating. These names well express the peculiarities characterising the groups. Thus, in the isolating group like the Chinese, each root preserves its independence and is distinctly significant. Here the position of the word alone denotes the meaning of a sentence without the assistance of any signs of relationship. Every word remains a separate and distinct sentence. In the agglutinative group like the Finnish and the Dravidian languages, two roots coalesce to form a word, the one retaining its radical independence, the other sinking down to a mere termination. These languages show grammatical relations by prefixing, suffixing or infixing sounds and syllables which are no longer independent words, and yet are clearly distinguishable from the full words they modify and not inextricably blended with them. In the inflectional languages like Sanskrit, two roots coalesce so that neither the one nor the other retains its substantive independence. The root and the suffix become so inextricably blended as to make the history of the word quite obscure. The difference between an Aryan and a Turanian language, *i.e.*, between an inflectional and an agglutinative language, is aptly compared by Max Muller to the difference between good and bad mosaic. The Aryan words, he says, seem made of one piece, whereas the Turanian words show clearly the sutures and fissures where the

\* Sayce : *Principles of Comparative Philology*.

† Max Muller : *Survey of Languages*, 7.

small stones were cemented together. In the polysynthetic group like the North American languages, the words that make up a sentence are stripped of their grammatical terminations, and then fused into a single word of monstrous length. And lastly, in the incorporating languages like the Basque, a few words are loosely attached to the verbal root, unimpaired and independent. "If inflexion is 'agglutination run mad,' incorporation is inflexion run madder still: it is the result of attempting to develop the verb into a complete sentence."\*

The relationship of the Dravidian languages to the great divisions of human speech is thus stated by Dr. Caldwell:—

"The Dravidian languages occupy a position of their own, between the languages of the Indo-European family and those of the Turanian or Scythian group—not quite a midway position, but one considerably nearer the latter than the former. The Affiliation of the Dravidian group of languages. particulars in which they accord with the Indo-European languages are numerous and remarkable, and some of them are of such a nature that it is impossible to suppose that they have been accidental; but the relationship to which they testify—in so far as they do testify to any relationship—appears to me very indefinite as well as very remote. On the other hand, the particulars in which they seem to me to accord with most of the so-called Scythian languages are not only so numerous but are so distinctive and of so essential a nature that they appear to me to amount to what is called a family likeness and therefore naturally to suggest the idea of a common descent."

On the other hand, the Indo-European relationship of the Dravidian languages has been advocated by Dr. Pope on the ground of "deep-seated and radical affinities between them and the Celtic and Teutonic languages." But Dr. Caldwell observes in reply that "of all the members of the Indo-European family, the Celtic is that which appears to have most in common with the

---

\* Sweet: *The History of Language*.

Scythian group, and especially with the languages of the Finnish family—languages which may possibly have been widely spoken in Europe previously to the arrival of the Celts.” Dr. Pope has also expressed the opinion that the more the Dravidian languages are studied, the closer their affinity to Sanskrit will appear. Gover, Seshagiri Sastri and R. Svaminatha Iyer have also advocated the Indo-European relationship.

The affiliation of the Dravidian languages to the Scythian family advocated by Dr. Caldwell appears to have received, more or less, the approval of scholars such as Max Muller, Whitney, Cust, and a few others, though other scholars have condemned it.

Max Muller, who has included the Dravidian group in the Turanian (Scythian) languages, describes the latter as follows :—

“The most characteristic feature of the Turanian languages is what has been called agglutination or ‘gluing together.’ This means not only that, in their grammar, pronouns are glued to the verbs in order to form the conjugation, or prepositions to substantives in order to form declension, . . . but that in them the conjugation and declension can still be taken to pieces ; and, although the terminations have by no means always retained their significative power as independent words, they are felt as modificatory syllables and as distinct from the roots to which they are appended.”

Whitney has the following remarks on the subject :—

“The Dravidian tongues have some peculiar phonetic elements, are richly polysyllabic, of general agglutinative structure, with prefixes only, and very soft and harmonious in their utterance ; they are of a very high type of agglutination like the Finnish and Hungarian. . . . Excepting that they show no trace of the harmonic sequence of vowels, these languages are not in their structure so different from the Scythian that they might not belong to one family with them, if only sufficient correspondences of material were found between the two groups. And some have been ready, though on grounds not to be accepted as sufficient, to declare them related.”

Cust says that the Dravidian family may be considered to represent the agglutinative method, not-



withstanding that Pope, up to this day, maintains that the Dravidian family belongs to the same morphological order as the Aryan.

It will thus be seen that scholars are generally agreed that the Dravidian languages are agglutinative. The harmonic sequence of vowels, of which, according to Whitney, the Dravidian languages show no trace, is, however, found to exist to an appreciable extent in Telugu, though not to the same extent in the other Dravidian tongues also. Agglutination and vocalic harmony are two characteristics common to the Dravidian group and some of the languages of the so-called Scythian family. Added to these, there are a few coincidences in grammar. These similarities are, according to some scholars, quite inadequate to warrant the affiliation advocated by Caldwell. The same is the case with the forms and words given by him under Aryan and Semitic affinities to prove an ultimate connection of the Dravidian group with these families of languages. Further, the name Scythian is not at all satisfactory, as under that heading various languages of the world belonging to different morphological groups are lumped together. Other names used for Scythian are Allophylian and Ural-Altaic.

Sir George Grierson and Dr. Sten Konow think that the name Scythian is very unsatisfactory and that the Dravidian languages are related neither to the so-called Scythian family nor to the Indo-European family. They say :—

“The denomination Scythian is a very unhappy one. The Scythian words which have been handed down by Greek writers are distinctly Eranian, *i.e.*, they belong to the Indo-European family. But, nevertheless, the word has been used as a common designation of all those languages of Asia and Europe which do not belong to the Indo-European or Semitic families. Moreover, those languages cannot by any means be brought together into one linguistic family. The monosyllabic languages of China and neighbouring countries are just as different from the dialects spoken in the Caucasus or from the speech of the Finns and



Magyārs as is the Indo-European family. The points in which they agree are such features as recur in almost all languages and they are by no means sufficient to outweigh the great and fundamental characteristics in which they differ from each other. With regard to the Dravidian languages, the attempt to connect them with other linguistic families outside India is now generally recognised as a failure, and we must still consider them as an isolated family. The attempts made to show a closer connection with the Indo-European family have proved just as futile."

The Committee of Publication of *The Journal of American Oriental Society* (Vol. VII, 271), express the same opinion in the matter. They say:—

"The dialects of the Scythian family are remarkable for their great discordance with one another, for the slenderness of the ties which connect them, and the immense variety of elements and forms which they exhibit; hence the facility of going astray in an incautious ramble through such a wilderness of lexical and grammatical materials is extreme, and a careful comparative study of the different idioms, and a wary determination and selection of features among them, which can be pronounced of general occurrence and genuinely ancient, ought to precede any detailed comparison with another family of languages . . . His (Caldwell's) whole parallelism of Dravidian words and forms with Indo-European and Semitic for the purpose of proving an ultimate connection of the former with the two latter also contains the merest assonances and chance coincidences of no account as historical evidence.

The most cogent arguments in favour of the relationship of the Dravidian and Scythian languages which the comparison instituted between them brings to light are, in our view, the correspondences of general form and spirit, apprehension of grammatical relations and treatment of linguistic materials, which they undeniably present. And if the Science of Comparative Philology is strong enough to pronounce with confidence that such correspondences as are here displayed cannot be the result of analogous qualities of race, equal grade of capacity and culture, then the whole question is settled. But we are not certain that she has yet so far mastered the immense field of human speech as to be able to do this, and certainly there are few men living who are entitled to be accepted as her mouthpieces in making the decision. We shall prefer, then, to consider the question of Dravidian affiliation as one not yet authoritatively settled."

We are thus led to the conclusion that the Dravidian languages form an isolated family.

The term Drāviḍa is very old, being found in such ancient works as the Mahābhārata and those of Parāśara, Manu, Varāhamihira and Kumārila-bhaṭṭa.

It appears to be used in three senses—territorial, ethnological and linguistic. According to the Mahābhārata it denoted a tract of country in Southern India. It is also loosely applied to the south of the Peninsula. Ethnologically it denotes the Dravidian race. It had also the special meaning of a Tamil speaking Brāhman, which was subsequently extended to other Brāhman communities of the Peninsula, namely, the Āndhras, the Kārṇāṭas, the Mahrāṭṭas, and Gujarātis, as evidenced by the term Pancha-Drāviḍa as used by Indian Pandits. These communities were grouped together, because they all observed more or less the same customs, practices and rituals known as *Drāviḍāchāra* which differed from those of the Brāhman communities of the north known as the Pancha-Gauḍa. Linguistically the word has both a general and a special signification. When used in a general sense, it designates all the Dravidian languages, and when used in a special sense, it designates Tamil alone. Similarly, Gauḍa, too, is the name of country, people and language. The Pancha-Gauḍa include the five dialects derived from Sanskrit of the north, at the head of which stands the Bengālī, just as the Pancha-Drāviḍa include the five dialects of the south at the head of which stands Tamil.

The name Dravidian is derived from the Sanskrit Drāviḍa, which is derived from an older Dramiḷa, Damīḷa, and is identical with the name of Tamil.

Derivation of Drā-  
viḍa.

In the old Pāli of the Mahāvamśa, the Tamils are called Damīḷa. The same is the case in the Canon of the Śvētāmbara Jainas. Daviḷa and Daviḍa in the Prākṛit literature of the Jainas and of the Sanskrit plays seem to be a later stage, due to the Prākṛit change of

*m* to *v*. The oldest texts have *Damiḷa*. *Damiḷa* and *Daṇḍa* were Sanskritised to *Draṇḍa*, *Draṇḍa*, and *Draviḍa*, respectively. Varāhamihira of the sixth century probably used *Draṇḍa*, though printed editions of his *Bṛīhatsamhitā* read *Draviḍa*. Kern says some manuscripts read *Draṇḍa*. Tārānātha in his *History of Buddhism in India* mentions the *Draṇḍas*. *Draṇḍa* also occurs in old Malayālam versions of the Purāṇas, and in inscriptions such as the pillar inscription of king Maṅgaḷēṣa (597-608) from Mahākūṭa near Bādāmi. Classical authors know the word under forms such as *Damirice*, *Dimirica*. A commentator on the Brahmasūtras referred to by Rāmānuja is known as *Draṇḍa*; and a Sanskrit metrical abstract of the Tamil *Tiruvāymoli* of Saṭṭhakōpa is styled *Draṇḍōpanishatsangati*. Among the Jainas, *Draviḷa-gaṇa* or *Tivḷa-gaṇa* is the designation of a section of the community. The occurrence of the archaic letter *ḷ* in these words as in the word *Tamiḷ* deserves notice. *Draṇḍa* was again borrowed by Tamil under the form *Tiramiḍa*.

The Draviḍian race is not found outside India. It is commonly considered to be that of the aborigines of India, or at least, of Southern India. According to some statements made in early Tamil literature, the original home of the Draviḍians was Lemuria, a continent now submerged in the Indian Ocean. Another theory is that the original home of the Draviḍians was Asia Minor where they lived with the ancient Accadians and migrated to India from the north-west entering Sindh, probably by the Bolan Pass, as testified to by the affinities of the Behistun tablets of Persia and the Brāhūi of Balūchistān to their own languages. They then spread over nearly all India.

Dr. Caldwell gives the following account of the pre-Aryan civilisation of the Draviḍians as indicated by the words in use amongst the early Tamilians :—

“They had ‘kings’ who dwelt in ‘strong houses,’ and ruled over small ‘districts of country.’ They had ‘minstrels’ who

recited 'songs' at 'festivals,' and they seem to have had alphabetical 'characters' written with a style on palmyra leaves. A bundle of those leaves was called a 'book.' They acknowledged the existence of God, whom they styled *kō*, or king—a realistic title, little known to orthodox Hinduism. They erected to his honour a 'temple' which they called *kōil*, God's-house. They had 'laws' and 'customs,' but no lawyers or judges. Marriage existed among them. They were acquainted with the ordinary metals, with the exception of 'tin,' 'lead' and 'zinc,' with the planets which were ordinarily known to the ancients, with the exception of 'Mercury' and 'Saturn.' They had 'medicines,' 'hamlets' and 'towns,' 'canoes,' 'boats' and even 'ships' (small 'decked' coasting vessels), no acquaintance with any people beyond sea, except Ceylon, which was then, perhaps, accessible on foot at low water; and no word expressive of the geographical idea of 'island' or 'continent.' They were well acquainted with 'agriculture,' and delighted in 'war.' They were armed with 'bows' and 'arrows,' with 'spears' and 'swords.' All the ordinary or necessary arts of life, including 'spinning,' 'weaving' and 'dyeing' existed amongst them. They excelled in 'pottery' as their places of sepulture show."

This account affords sufficient proof that the elements of civilisation already existed amongst the Dravidians before they came into contact with the Aryans.

Long before the Christian era, the Dravidian South had developed a considerable culture of its own, and its inhabitants had consolidated themselves into powerful kingdoms, some of which carried on a thriving trade with Western Asia, Egypt, and later with the Greek and Roman empires. The occurrence of the word for peacock, *tuki* or *tūki*, which is none other than the ancient Tamil-Malayālam word *tōkai*, in the Hebrew text of *The Books of Kings* and *Chronicles* in the list of the articles of merchandise brought from Ophir in Solomon's ships, about 1000 B.C., also affords important confirmation of the antiquity of the Dravidian languages spoken in India before the advent of the Aryan tribes.

Recent discoveries tend not only to confirm the connection of the Dravidians with the Accadians or Sumerians but also to change entirely our present conceptions with

regard to the nature and antiquity of Dravidian civilisation. In the north-west of India, first at Harappa on the old bed of the Rāvi or Irāvati which under the name Parushni played a prominent part in the history of the Rigvēdic period, in the south of the Punjab, on a dry bed of the Indus, and then at Mohanjo-Daro near Dokri in the Larkhana District, some 400 miles away in Sindh, excavations had laid bare two cities which displayed evidences of a very considerable culture going back to a period long before the establishment of Buddhism. In those cities had been found, amongst other things, certain engraved and inscribed seals, bearing inscriptions in a hitherto unknown pictographic script, which were practically identical with the proto-Elamite tablets discovered at Sūsa. The graphs were in many cases the same, indicating that the same language must have been spoken in Elim in the west and in North-West India. Dr. Sayce, on the occasion of the presentation to him of the Triennial Gold Medal by the Royal Asiatic Society of Great Britain and Ireland on 12th May 1925, observed :—

“Some of the discoveries now being made were of a revolutionary character and were tending to change entirely our conception based on many of the assumptions and beliefs which had been held with regard to the origin of civilisations. Among these later discoveries, was one which was to him of especial interest as bringing India into contact with the cuneiform world. . . . They were coming to date the approximate time of the Sūsan plaques (see above) as belonging to what was known as the three dynasty period, *viz.*, about 2300 B.C., and it would seem that at that period there was close intercourse between North-West India and Elim. This was an extraordinary result of exploration, and brought India within the domain of our cuneiform studies in the most unexpected way.”\*

Dr. Hall of the British Museum bases the following remarks of his on the similarity of the finds of Harappa, Mohanjo-Daro, as also those at Adittanallur in the Tinnevely District, to those in Balūchistān, Babylon, Ur (Chaldea), Sumer and Crete :—

---

\* *Journal of the Royal Asiatic Society*, 1925, 593-94.

“ With our present evidences, the Dravidians look like being a Mediterranean people, coming out of Crete, and passing through Asia Minor and Mesopotamia, where they were in close touch with the Sumerians and the Elamites : and possibly these latter were related to them and the Cretans. Then they came by the southern part of the Iranian plateau into Sindh, whence they spread into the interior of India. This must have happened long before 3000 B.C. Even if the Cretan connection cannot be satisfactorily demonstrated, Sumerian affinities are certain. India is thus linked more closely than ever to the western world, through both the Aryans and the Dravidians.”

Further discoveries might even demonstrate that Dr. Hall's theory, noted above, is true, and that the Sumerians were but Dravidians from India. In that case it would be established that civilisation first arose in India, and was associated probably with the primitive Dravidians. Then it was taken to Mesopotamia, to become the source of the Babylonian and other ancient cultures which form the basis of modern civilisation.\*

According to Sir John Marshall,† we have by these sensational discoveries taken back at a single bound, our knowledge of Indian civilisation some 3,000 years earlier and have established the fact that in the third millennium before Christ and even before that, the peoples of the Punjab and Sindh were living in well-built cities and were in possession of a relatively mature culture with a high standard of art and craftsmanship and a developed system of pictographic writing. There can now no longer be any doubt that the Punjab and Sindh antiquities are closely connected and roughly contemporary with the Sumerian antiquities of Mesopotamia dating from the third or fourth millennium before Christ. Though the civilisation of the Indus will probably be found to have had its own distinctive characteristics, it will also be found to have formed part and parcel of a much wider sphere of culture which embraced not only Southern Mesopotamia and India, but

---

\* *Modern Review*, December 1924.

† Annual Report of the Archæological Survey of India, 1923-24.



probably Persia, and a large part of Central Asia as well, and which may even have extended as far west as the Mediterranean, where the early Ægean civilisation presents certain somewhat similar features. Whatever the history of the Sumerians in Mesopotamia may have been, a culture closely akin to theirs must have been widely disseminated in the valley of the Indus, and have undergone a development reaching back incalculable centuries on Indian soil. If, therefore, those scholars are right who consider the Sumerians to have been an intrusive element in Mesopotamia then the possibility is clearly suggested of India proving ultimately to be the cradle of their civilisation, which in its turn lay at the root of Babylonian, Assyrian and Western Asiatic, culture generally.

With the revolutionary discoveries in Sindh and the Punjab the history of Indian culture has now suddenly been taken back an extra 3,000 years, and the last mists of the legend that art began with the Greeks and religion with the Jews have been finally scattered.\*

The Sumerian or Accadian language which was non-Semitic and earlier than the Assyrian or Babylonian, was beginning to be a dead language as early as 2000 B.C. The Sumerian civilisation must have been an old-established one long before 3800 B.C., the date of the reign of Sargon I (a Semite) who united Sumer and Accad into one kingdom. The Sumerians must have been in possession of writing before 8000 B.C. which is about the date of the earliest of their written documents that have yet been discovered.†

The language has, like the Dravidian group, the characteristics of agglutination and vowel harmony.

The region where the Dravidian languages are spoken is the whole of Peninsular India from the Vindhya mountains and the river Narmada in the north to Cape Comorin in the south, excluding Orissa

---

\* *Times Literary Supplement*, 1926.

† Sweet: *The History of Language*.

in the east and the Gujarāṭi and the Mahrāṭhi districts in the west, and the northern half of Ceylon. Further to the north, Dravidian dialects are spoken by small tribes in the Central Provinces and Chōṭa Nāgpur, and even up the banks of the Ganges at Rājamahāl. Finally there is a Dravidian dialect in the far north-west in Balūchistān.

The best known Dravidian languages are Tamil, Malayāḷam, Kannaḍa, and Telugu. They have all been used for a long time as literary languages with alphabets, grammars and literatures of their own. Each of the languages consists of two forms of speech—the literary, the one found in literature, and the colloquial, the one used in every-day speech—which differ considerably from each other. There are, besides, in Southern India, Tuḷu, Koḍagu, Tōḍa, Kōṭa and Baḍaga which may be looked upon as dialects of Kannaḍa, as they are more closely related to that language than to any other of the Dravidian group. Further, the languages in the north belonging to the Dravidian family are Kurukh or Orāyon, Māḷto or Rājamahāli, Kūi or Khoṇḍ, Gōṇḍi, and Brāhūi. Barring the four literary languages mentioned above, all the others are uncultivated. They have not even an alphabet of their own. A few minor dialects of the north belonging to the same family are Kōlāmi, Nāiki and Bhīli. There are likewise a few minor dialects of the south such as Kuṛumba and Irūḷa.

Tamil, Malayāḷam, Kannaḍa and Telugu, together with the uncultivated Tuḷu, are now known as the Pancha-Drāviḍa. The Pancha-Drāviḍa Indian Pandits, however, include Mahrāṭhi and Gujarāṭi in the Pancha-Drāviḍa in place of Malayāḷam and Tuḷu, but philologists, recognising that Mahrāṭhi and Gujarāṭi, like other Indo-Aryan vernaculars of the north such as Bengāli and Sindhi, are mainly derived from Sanskrit, place them in the Gauda group of languages. The reasons for the Indian Pandits including



Mahrāṭhi and Gujarāṭi in the Pancha-Drāviḍa may be the existence of a few special points of similarity between these languages and the Draviḍian group as indicated below :—

1. "In northern vernaculars the masculine and neuter genders have been confounded, and in some, such as Bengālī and Oriya, the difference between masculine and feminine nouns is also blotted out. In Mahrāṭhi and Gujarāṭi, on the other hand, three genders are distinguished and the neuter is a living gender just as in Draviḍian tongues.

Northern Indo-Aryan vernaculars have developed in a country where the home speech was Kolārian, while the substratum over which Gujarāṭi and Mahrāṭhi have spread was Draviḍian." *The Aryan Gods of the Mitāni People*, by Dr. Sten Konow.

2. Another reason seems to be that the palatals in Mahrāṭhi are pronounced as in Telugu, *i.e.*, they retain the pronunciation as real palatals before *i, ī, e, ē, ai* and *y* while in other cases *ch* is pronounced as *ts* and *j* as *dz*.

3. It may also be stated that in the opinion of some scholars the waves of Aryan immigration gradually submerged Draviḍian blood and speech in Gujarāt and the same influences obliterated the language in Mahārāshṭra.

4. One more reason is the existence in Mahrāṭhi and Gujarāṭi of the inclusive and exclusive forms of the plural of the personal pronoun of the first person as in the Draviḍian languages.

From the above it may perhaps be inferred that Mahrāṭhi and Gujarāṭi were once Draviḍian.

Tamil is spoken throughout the country below the Ghāts from Pulicāt to Cape Comorin and from the Ghāts to the Bay of Bengal, as also in the south of Tranvancore and the northern and the north-western parts of Ceylon.

Malayāḷam is spoken along the Malabar coast on the western side of the Ghāts from about Chandragiri near Mangalore to Trivandrum.

Telugu is the language spoken all along the eastern coast of the Peninsula from about Pulicāt to Chicācōle, and inland it prevails as far as the eastern boundary of the Mahrāṭṭa country and Mysore including within its range the Ceded Districts and Karnūl, a considerable

part of Hyderābād, a portion of the Nāgpur country and Gondvāna.

The region in which the Kannada language is now spoken comprises the west of the Nizam's Dominions, parts of Central Provinces and Berar, the southern districts of the Bombay Presidency, the whole of Mysore and Coorg, and the Madras districts bordering these countries on the north, west and south.

In the *Linguistic Survey of India* the region is thus defined :—

“ Kanarese is the principal language of Mysore and the adjoining parts of Coimbatore, Salem, Anantapur and Bellary. The frontier line thence goes northwards through the Dominions of His Exalted Highness the Nizam as far as Bidar, where it turns almost due west on to about the 78th degree and further southwards so as to include the south-eastern portion of Jāt and Daphlapur. Kanarese is also spoken in the extreme south-east of Satāra in Taluqa Tāsgaon ; to some extent in the Aundh State in the Satāra Agency ; and in the south of Belgaum, and further to the west, in Kolhāpur in almost so far west as the town of Kolhāpur. The line thence turns southwards, following the Ghāts to about Honāwar where it goes down to the sea. In North Kanara, Kanarese is the official language all over the district. It is the principal language of South Kanara with the exception of the southernmost corner. The frontier line thence coincides with the southern frontier of Mysore. Kanarese dialects are also spoken in the Nilgiris and the language has lately been brought by immigrants to Madura and to Central Provinces.”

Tulu is spoken in a very limited area, the Chandra-giri and Kalyāṇapuri rivers in the Canara District being regarded as its ancient boundaries, and it does not appear ever to have extended much beyond them. Koḍagu is the language of Coorg ; and Tōḍa, Kōṭa and Baḍaga, as also Kuṛumba and Iruḷa, are the languages of certain tribes inhabiting the Nilgiris.

Kurukh or Orāyon is spoken in the western portion of the Bengal Presidency and the adjoining parts of the Central Provinces ; Mālto or Rājamahālī in the Rājamahāl Hills in the north-east of the Sonthal Parganas ; Kūī or Khoṇḍ in the hills of Orissa and the neighbouring districts ; Gōṇḍi in the plateau of the Central Provinces from

Wārdha in the west and south to Bālāghāt and Maṇḍla in the east and north; Kōlāmi in East Berar and the Wārdha district of the Central Provinces; Bhili in the Pusad Taluqa of the Bāsim district; and Nāiki, the dialect of the Darwe Gōṇḍs, in Chanda.

Brāhūi is spoken in the Sarawān and Jhalawār Provinces of Balūchistān and also in parts of Sindh.\*

The total number of speakers of these languages is, in round numbers, about  
 Number of speakers. seventy-two millions.

We shall now proceed to say a few words about the general characteristics of the Dravidian languages. As Tamil has developed the common Dravidian principles with great consistency, it may be taken as a good representative of the Dravidian languages.

*Pronunciation.*—There is a tendency to pronounce a short vowel after every final consonant.† There are a short and a long *e* and *o*.

*Harmonic sequence of vowels.*—This requires the vowel of the suffix to be so changed as to harmonise with the radical vowel; and conversely the vowel of the suffix also reacts on the vowel of the root so that the latter is altered into harmony with the former. This rule is particularly observed in Telugu and Tulu, though there are traces of it in Tamil and Kannaḍa also. In Telugu *i* is used when a neighbouring syllable contains *i*, *ī* or *ai*, and *u* in other cases: kattiki, kattulaku, kattulu; ā-manishinni, mīrunnu; kalugudunu, kaligitini. This law of vocalic harmony is a characteristic feature

\* I may add here that two more Dravidian tribes of Balūchistān, namely, the Oritā and the Arabitā, are mentioned by classical writers. One is tempted to recognise a connection between Arabitā and Arava, the name applied to Tamil by the Telugus and the Kannaḍigas.

† Kumārīlabhaṭṭa of the 7th century quotes in his *Tantravārtika*, *chōr* (śōru), *pāmp* (pāmbu) and *vair* (vayiru) without final *u*. This is perhaps due to his insufficient acquaintance with the Tamil language.

of many of the Ural-Altaic forms of speech.\* Distinct traces of it are also found in the Muṇḍa languages. Its occurrence in Telugu is supposed to be due to Muṇḍa influence.

*Convertibility of surds and sonants.*—Hard and soft consonants are interchanged, especially in Tamil and Malayālam. A consonant when initial or double is hard, but when medial soft.

*Phonetical changes of vowels and consonants.*—*Ai* in Tamil becomes *e* in Kannaḍa and *a* in Telugu and Malayālam: talai, tale, tala. Gutturals in Kannaḍa change into palatals in Tamil and Telugu: kivi, ševi, chevi; key, šey, chēyi; *v* in Tamil changes to *g* in Telugu: aruvar, aruguru; *y* in Tamil changes to *s* in Kannaḍa: peyar, pesar; vayiru, basiru; etc., etc.

*Inflection of nouns.*—*Gender*: Nouns are divided into high-caste and casteless or rational and irrational. Gender is denoted by pronominal suffixes in high-caste nouns—*an*, *al*, *ar* (epicene plural). Brāhūi does not distinguish the genders even in the case of rational beings. Most other languages of the family—Kurukh, Mālto, Kūi, Gōṇḍi, Kōlāmi, and Telugu—have no feminine singular, but use the neuter instead. The same is the case in Kurumba, a dialect of Kannaḍa. Kūi and Gōṇḍi use the neuter even for the feminine plural.

*Number*: There are only the singular and plural numbers, but no dual. Demonstrative pronouns are added to denote number, as also the suffixes *kaḷ*, *gaḷ* and *lu*.

*Case*: Cases are formed by the addition of post-positions which are the same in the singular and plural. These post-positions are not independent words. They are added to the simple base in the nominative and to the oblique base formed by the addition of *ad* or *at*, *marad* or *marat*, in the other cases. The accusative and dative cases are generally distinguished, but not in some

---

\* It is found in Finnish, Turkish, Hungarian, etc., but not in the language of the Lapps.

languages of the group, which is due to the influence of the Aryan vernaculars.

*Adjectives.*—Adjectives are not capable of inflection. The genitive of ordinary nouns is an adjective. Many adjectives are in the form of relative participles—*śirīya*, *perīya*, *uyarnda*.

*Numerals.*—Nine is formed from the numeral ten by prefixing one—*ombadu*, *ombattu*; but *tommidi* in Telugu. Numerals are used partly as nouns and partly as adjectives.

*Pronouns.*—Generally in pronouns *n* denotes the singular and *m* the plural; but in the second person plural *r* is likewise used: Tamil *nīr*, Tuḷu *īr*, Kūī *īru*, Telugu *mīru* (old form *īru*). Reflexive pronouns are used in the beginning of words to form terms of relationship: *tandai*, *tangai*, *tande*, *tange*. There are two plurals of the first person, one inclusive and the other exclusive of the person addressed\*:—

	<i>Exclusive</i>	<i>Inclusive</i>
Tamil	... <i>nāṅgal</i>	<i>yām</i> , <i>nām</i>
Malayāḷam	... <i>ñāṇṇal</i>	<i>nām</i>
Kurukh	... <i>em</i>	<i>nām</i>
Kūī	... <i>āmu</i>	<i>āju</i>
Telugu	... <i>ēmū</i> , <i>mēmū</i>	<i>manamu</i>
Kannāḍa	... <i>nām</i>	<i>ām</i> .

There are no relative pronouns but only relative participles. The plural is used as an honorific form in the singular.

*Verbs.*—Many bases are both verbs and nouns: *kuṭṭu*, *tappu*, *malar*, *taḷir*, *paḷi*. There is a negative conjugation. There are two negatives *illa* and *alla*, the one denying existence and the other denying quality or nature.

There are appellative verbs, *i.e.*, verbs formed from nouns: *śēvaganen*, *śēvakanem*, *śēvakuḍanu*. There is no passive voice.

\* These two forms occur in the Munda languages also. They likewise occur in other families which have nothing to do with the Munda and the Drāviḍas, *e.g.*, in the Nūba languages, the Algonquin languages, etc.



According to Cust the distinctive features of the Dravidian family of languages briefly are, that in its gender it distinguishes between rational and irrational objects; it has an oblique form for many of its nouns; it specialises the meaning of a root by the use of formatives; it modifies the root itself to convey different meanings, and relations; it has a negative voice.

The important points of resemblance between the

Affinity of Behistun tablets to Dravidian languages.

Dravidian languages and the Behistun tablets\* are: the occurrence of cerebral letters; agreement with Tamil in regarding the same consonant as a surd in the beginning of a word and as a sonant in the middle, and in pronouncing the same consonant as a sonant when single and as a surd when doubled; formation of the genitive case by the suffixes *na*, *nina* and *inna*, *cp. ni* in Telugu and *in* in Tamil; the dative suffix *ikki*, *ikka*, *cp. Malayālam* *ninakkū*; formation of the accusative by suffixing *un*, *in* or *n*, *cp. nu* or *ni* in Telugu; the ordinal suffix *im*, *cp. ām* in Tamil; the pronoun of the second person singular *ni* and the oblique form *nin*; and the use of the relative participle.

The general characteristics of the Dravidian languages given above distinguish these

Dravidian group different from Sanskrit.

forms of speech from Sanskrit. A few more distinguishing features are:—

In the Dravidian languages all nouns denoting inanimate substances and irrational beings are of the neuter gender. The distinction of male and female appears only in the pronouns of the third person, in adjectives formed by suffixing the pronominal terminations, and in the third person of the verb. In all other cases, the distinction of gender is marked by separate words signifying “male” and “female.” Dravidian

---

\* Behistun in Western Media. The inscriptions discovered here which are in the old Persian, in the Babylonian and in the language of the Scythians of the Medo-Persian empire, record the political autobiography of Darius Hystaspes.

nouns are inflected, not by means of case terminations, but by means of suffixed post-positions and separate particles. Dravidian neuter nouns are rarely pluralized. Dravidian languages use post-positions instead of prepositions. It is characteristic of these languages in contradistinction to Indo-European, that wherever practicable, they use as adjectives the relative participles of verbs, in preference to nouns of quality or adjectives properly so called. Unlike the Indo-European, they prefer the use of continuative participles to conjunctions. It is a marked peculiarity of the Dravidian languages that they make use of relative participial nouns instead of phrases introduced by relative pronouns. These participles are formed from the various participles of the verb by the addition of a formative suffix. Thus "the person who came" is in these languages literally "the who came." Finally, in the Dravidian languages the governing word is invariably placed after the word governed, in consequence of which the nominative always occupies the first place in the sentence, and the one finite verb the last.

Further, Tamil rules of prosody are mostly different from those of Sanskrit, and the possession of peculiar sounds like *l*, *r*, *n* (final) and *h* (*āydam*) is an indication of the physiological characteristics of the Tamil people differentiating their language from the Aryan tongues. Moreover, in the Aryan languages the plural has a different set of case-terminations from the singular, by the use of which the complex idea of plurality and case-relation is indicated. There is no inflection of any case as such, irrespective of number, nor for number as such, irrespective of case. In the Dravidian languages plurality is expressed by a sign common to all the cases which is affixed directly to the singular, or crude form of the noun. To this sign of plurality are added the case terminations, which are fixed and unalterable, expressing the idea of case, and nothing more, and are the same in both numbers. Again, in the Aryan languages, case-relations of the singular are expressed by one set of forms and those of the plural by another; but in the

Dravidian tongues the same case signs are employed, without alteration both in the singular and in the plural. There is only one declension properly so called. The conjunctive case is not found in the Aryan languages. In the Dravidian languages the pronominal signs are annexed, not directly to the root as in the Aryan but to the tense particles. The Dravidian languages are destitute of any common term for brother, sister, uncle, aunt, etc., and use instead a set of terms which combine the idea of relationship with that of age; *e.g.*, *anna*, (elder brother), *tamma* (younger brother), *akka* (elder sister), *tange* (younger sister), *chikkappa* (younger paternal uncle), *doḍḍamma* (elder maternal aunt), etc.

With regard to the cultivated Dravidian languages of Southern India, the influence of Sanskrit has extended only to the vocabulary and not to the grammar. It has been said that the accession of culture from a

Influence of Sanskrit and the Aryan vernaculars on the Dravidian group.

superior race to an inferior is sometimes dangerous to the purity of a language; and accordingly the Dravidian languages have suffered in this way by the large infiltration of Sanskrit. The amount of Sanskrit in Tamil is much less than in the other languages. Sanskrit has no doubt supplied these tongues with words for expressing abstract ideas of religion, philosophy and science; but in many cases Sanskrit words have been unnecessarily introduced with the notion of adding elegance and refinement to the speech. Caldwell says that the following remarks of Archbishop Trench respecting the character of the contributions which English has received from Anglo-Saxon and from Latin respectively, are exactly applicable to the relation and proportion which the native Dravidian element bears to the Sanskrit contained in these languages:—

“ All its joints, its whole articulation, its sinews, and its ligaments, the great body of articles, pronouns, conjunctions, prepositions, numerals, auxiliary verbs, all smaller words which serve to knit together and bind the larger into sentences, these,



not to speak of the grammatical structure of the language, are exclusively Anglo-Saxon (Dravidian). The Latin (Sanskrit) may contribute its tale of bricks, yea, of goodly and polished hewn stones, to the spiritual buildings, but the mortar, with all that holds and binds these together, and constitutes them into a house, is Anglo-Saxon (Dravidian) throughout."

But the Dravidian languages of Northern India have been much influenced by the neighbouring Aryan vernaculars, and in some cases such as the Brāhūī, the influence has been very great owing to the segregation of these languages for centuries from the other Dravidian tongues. It is, however, remarkable that these languages have still retained so many grammatical affinities to the other languages of the group. The Brāhūī has freely absorbed the alien vocabulary of Persian, Balūchi, Sindhi and other neighbouring languages and is no more an unmixed form of speech. Still its character as a Dravidian language can easily be recognised. It has a short *e* and a long *e* and *o*; *ni* for thou and *num* for you; a negative conjugation and a passive voice; aspirated letters and *f*. The first three numerals are Dravidian, the higher ones being Aryan loan-words. Musit, three, may be compared with the Tuḷu mūji. The plural suffixes of the first and second person correspond to forms used in the other Dravidian languages, but the singular suffixes are different. Kurukh and Mālto very closely agree with each other. They have no separate feminine singular, but use the neuter instead, just as is the case in Kūī, Gōṇḍi and Telugu. Their nouns have no separate oblique base, as is also the case in Brāhūī and often in Telugu. Their personal pronouns are most closely related to those used in the old dialects of Tamil and Kannaḍa. Their present tense is formed as in Kannaḍa. Only the first few numerals are Dravidian, the rest being Aryan. Kūī and Gōṇḍi differ from other connected languages in using the neuter instead of the feminine in both numbers. They follow the same principles as Tamil and Kannaḍa in the formation of the plural, and mainly agree with

Kannāḍa in the formation of the present and past tenses. With regard to numerals, they resemble the other languages mentioned above. The minor dialects of the north, namely, Kōlāmi, Nāiki and Bhili, use the neuter singular as a feminine like Telugu, Gōṇḍi, Kūi, etc., but the oblique base is formed as in Tamil and Kannāḍa. The plural suffixes agree with Kannāḍa dialects and Telugu, and the numerals are mainly the same as in Telugu. These three dialects very much resemble one another and show some interesting points of analogy with the Tōḍa dialect of the Nilgiris.

Some scholars are of opinion that the Dravidian tongues have not only borrowed much from Sanskrit but have also lent much to it. It is even supposed that these languages have also influenced to some extent the grammar of Sanskrit and the Aryan vernaculars. The Dravidian family once extended over nearly the whole of India. The geographical names in most parts of India, in spite of Sanskritised forms and fanciful derivations, attest this fact to this day. Where peoples speaking different languages are in constant intercommunication with each other, they naturally borrow much from each other without examination or consideration. It may therefore be taken for granted that as the Aryans penetrated to the south and became acquainted with new objects bearing Dravidian names, they have, as a matter of course, adopted the names of those things together with the things themselves. Caldwell gives the following as the conditions on which any word contained in the Sanskrit lexicons may be concluded to be of Dravidian origin:—

1. When it is an isolated word in Sanskrit without a root and without derivations, but is surrounded in the Dravidian languages with collateral, related or derivative words;
2. when Sanskrit possesses other words expressing the same idea, whilst the Dravidian tongues have the one in question alone;
3. when the word is not found in any of the Indo-European tongues allied to Sanskrit, but is found in every Dravidian dialect;

4. when the derivation which the Sanskrit lexicographers give is fanciful, whilst Dravidian lexicographers deduce it from some Dravidian theme of the same or a similar signification from which a variety of words are found to be derived ;

5. when the signification of the word in the Dravidian languages is evidently radical and physiological, whilst the Sanskrit signification is metaphorical or only collateral ; and

6. when Indian Dravidian scholars, notwithstanding their high estimation of Sanskrit as the mother of all literature, classify the word as a purely Dravidian one.

When any or several or all of these grounds exist, we may, according to Caldwell, safely conclude the word to be Dravidian, not a Sanskrit derivative. As judged by these conditions, the following among others are given as Dravidian loan-words :—

Akkā (a mother), attā (a mother, an elder sister), kuṭi (a house), kōṭa (a fort), nīra (water), palli (a village), mīna (a fish), ēḍa (a sheep or goat) *cp.* āḍu, marutta (a medicine man) *cp.* marundu, hēramba (a buffalo) *cp.* erumai, aṭṭa (boiled rice, food) from aḍu, ām (yes) *cp.* ām, valli (a creeper) *cp.* valli, baḷli; mukūla (a bud) *cp.* mugil, mugul; kuntala (hair) *cp.* kūndal, pāli (tip of the ear) *cp.* pāle (lobe of the ear), maṇḍa (the head) *cp.* maṇḍe, kāka (a crow) *cp.* kāge, māchala (a crocodile) *cp.* mosale, mēka (a goat) *cp.* mēke, śīra (a large snake) *cp.* śērai, kēre; tāla (palmyra) *cp.* tāl, varuka (a species of inferior grain) *cp.* baragu, varagu; ulkā (a firebrand) *cp.* ulku, taṭit, taḍit (lightning) *cp.* siḍil, tedil (Tulu); Malaya from male, āli (a woman's female friend) *cp.* ālu (Telugu) a woman, a wife; kali, gaṇḍa (a hero); śundi (a procuress, a bawd) *cp.* sonḍi, khalīna (the bit of a bridle) *cp.* kaḍiyāna, talpa (a float) *cp.* teppa, kalya (spirituous liquor) *cp.* kal, kharju (itch) *cp.* kajji, psā (hunger) *cp.* pasi.

Sanskrit has borrowed words of even Greek or Roman origin such as dīnāra dramma, hōra, etc.

So much for the Dravidian element in the vocabulary of Sanskrit. With regard to phonology, it is supposed that the cerebral letters in Sanskrit were taken from the Dravidian tongues. It is a general rule that a people

which invades a foreign country, to some degree adopts the pronunciation of its new home, partly owing to climate and partly owing to intermixture with the old inhabitants. The cerebral letters form an essential feature of Dravidian phonology and they are found in Sanskrit alone and not in any of the primitive languages related to Sanskrit. Further, the use of *l* in Sanskrit and the Aryan vernaculars where other Indo-European languages use *r* and *vice versa*, is probably due to Dravidian influence, since in these languages the change of *r* to *l* is very common. Further features in the phonology of the Aryan vernaculars which may be attributed to Dravidian influence are the softening of hard consonants after vowels in the Prākṛits, not only in single words but also in compounds; the double pronunciation of the palatals in Mahrāṭhi as in Telugu; and the change of *ch* to *s* and of *s* to *h* in many of these languages.

We observe Dravidian influence of much greater importance in the inflectional system of the Aryan vernaculars. In the inflection of nouns post-positions are used as case-suffixes, which are the same in both numbers, not after the base but after an oblique form, the latter being also used as a genitive and this again as an adjective. The use of a separate oblique form is most extensive in languages such as Mahrāṭhi and Bihāri, where the Dravidian influence must have been very strong. The use of two different forms of the objective case is distinctly Dravidian. It cannot, from an Aryan point of view, be explained why a post-position should, in this case, be added to a noun denoting a rational being, and not to other nouns as well. In the Dravidian languages nouns are divided into two broad classes—rational beings and irrational beings, whether animate or inanimate. The Hindi rule for the use of a post-position in the objective case agrees with that prevailing in Tamil and Malayāḷam. The inclusive and exclusive plurals of the pronoun of the first person are also found in several of the Aryan vernaculars.

The Dravidian tendency of using the participles without any addition as conjunctive participles in

subordinate sentences, also with pronominal suffixes to indicate the person of the subject, has also pervaded the Aryan vernaculars. Verbal tenses have been replaced by participles. Forms like *kṛitavān*, one who has done, are peculiar to later Sanskrit, *cp.* *ṣeydavan*. The suffix *vat* is Aryan, but it is not clear how an active form can be arrived at by adding the suffix to a passive participle. In the Dravidian languages, on the other hand, the past participle is active as well as passive, and a noun of agency is formed from it in all dialects—*ṣeydavan*. There cannot be any reasonable doubt about *kṛitavān* having been influenced by *ṣeydavan*. In Sanskrit *kṛitavān* is an anomalous form without analogy in connected languages, while Tamil *ṣeydavan* is quite regular. The order of words in the Aryan vernaculars, with the governed before the governing word and the verb invariably at the end of the sentence, is also in agreement with Dravidian principles.

In the Gaudian languages, *i.e.*, the Aryan vernaculars, the non-Sanskritic portion of the vocabulary is very small and even words of every day use are taken, either pure or corrupt, from Sanskrit, as also many grammatical features; whilst in the Dravidian languages, though a small proportion of the words, either pure or corrupt, has been borrowed from Sanskrit, the major portion being non-Sanskritic, the words for ordinary use are not derived from Sanskrit, nor do the grammatical processes resemble those of Sanskrit. Further, the Aryan vernaculars have no relative participles, no negative voice, not one of the Dravidian pronouns or numerals and no common words of primary importance. The non-Sanskritic words in them have no manner of analogy to the non-Sanskritic words in the Dravidian languages.

We have briefly shown the agreement in grammar and structure of the Dravidian tongues. We may now proceed to a comparison of their lexicons. In comparing words together it

Difference between  
Gaudian and Dravi-  
dian languages.

Lexical affinities in  
the Dravidian langu-  
ages.



is desirable to take pronouns and numerals, which constitute a link between grammar and vocabulary and have acquired a fixed and arbitrary meaning, and terms of relationship and every day use. A list of twelve such words in nine Dravidian languages, namely, Tamil, Malayālam, Kannaḍa, Telugu, Kurukh, Mālto, Kūī, Gōṇḍi and Brāhūī, is appended. It will be seen from the list that there is some dissimilarity in a few words, especially of Mālto and Brāhūī; but this is accounted for by the influence exercised on these languages by the neighbouring Aryan vernaculars.

	English	Tamil	Mala- yālam	Kannada	Telugu	Kurukh	Māto	Kū	Gōndi	Brāhū
1	One	onṛu	oru	ondu	okaṭi	onṭā	ort	ro (nḍi)	unḍi	asiṭ
2	Two	iranḍu	raṇḍu	eraḍu	reṇḍu	eṇḍ	iwr	ri (ṛḍi)	raṇḍ	iraṭ
3	Three	Mūṇṭu	mūṇnu	māṇu	mūḍu	mūḍ	tīn	mūṇṭi	mūṇḍ	musiṭ
4	I	nān	nān	nānu	nēnu	ēn	ēn	ānu	nannā	i
5	We	(Excl.) nāṅga! (Incl.) nām	nāṅṇa! nām	nāvugaḷu nāvu	mēmu manamu	ēm nām	ēm nām	ānu	mammāṭ	nan
6	Thou	nī	nī	nīnu	nīvu	nīn	nīn	īnu	immā	nī
7	You	nīṅga!	nīṇṇa!	nīvu	mīru	uīu	nīm	īru	immaṭ	nun
8	Eye	kaṇ	kaṇṇu	kaṇṇu	kannu	khaṇṇ	qaṇuth	kānu	kan	khan
9	Ear	kāḍu, śevi	chevi	kivi	chevi	khebdā	qethwuth	kriu	kavi	khaf
10	Nose	mūḱku	mūḱku	mūḱu	mukku	mū	musoth	munḡali	mussōr	bāmus
11	Tooth	pal	pallu	hallu	pallu	pall	paluth	pālka	pal	dandān
12	Come	vā	vā	bā	rā	barā	bara	bānu	varā	bar

We may now proceed to consider in some detail the Dravidian tongues of Southern India. As stated before, four of these, *viz.*, Tamil, Malayālam, Kannaḍa and Telugu, are cultivated, while the rest, namely, Tuḷu, Koḍagu, Tōḍa, Kōṭa and Baḍaga, which are all dialects of Kannaḍa, are uncultivated, inasmuch as they have not even a written character of their own. To these have to be added the minor dialects Kuṛumba and Iruḷa.

Of these languages, Tamil is supposed to be the oldest and most highly organised, exceedingly rich in vocabulary and cultivated from a very remote period. Some scholars, however, are of opinion that Tamil is not the oldest Dravidian language, as Telugu and other languages have preserved older forms and represent a more ancient state of development. They think that the use of conjunctive participles instead of the ordinary verbal tenses in Malayālam also affords evidence of a more ancient stage of development of that language than is the case with Tamil. It has been stated that the name Tamil has been Sanskritised into Dramiḍa or Draviḍa, though it is not easy to account for the presence of *r* in the first syllable. Tamil Pandits say that the word *Tamiḷ* means "sweetness" and that it has appropriately become the name of their sweet language.\* They consider that the theory that Tamil is derived from the Sanskrit Draviḍa is not at all tenable, since a language which was in existence before the advent of the Aryans could not have got its name from the new comers. The Telugus and the Kannaḍigas call the language *Aravam*, un-sonorous, probably because it is totally destitute of aspirates. Another name applied to it by the Kannaḍigas is

---

\* In the Tamil lexicon called *Piṅgalandai* sweetness and mercy are given as the meanings of the word *tamiḷ*—*inimaiyum nirmaiyum tamiḷ enal āḡum*. The word appears to occur only once in Tamil literature in the sense of sweetness—in the *Sintāmani* of Tiruttakkadēvar.



Tigula, meaning probably rude or rough. The Portuguese called Tamil and Malayālam, Malabar, and Tamil, too, was known by that name long in Europe. In the very first book ever printed in Tamil characters at Ambalakkāḍu on the Malabar coast in 1577-9, the language of the book is styled Malavar or Tamul. Tradition refers the commencement of literary activity in Tamil to the sage Agastya, who is said to have been taught Tamil by Śiva or Subrahmanya, to have brought the alphabet from the north, to have composed the first grammar of the language known as *Pēragattiyam*, and to have caused another grammar named *Tolkāppiyam* to be written by one of his pupils. It is stated that from the sound of the right side of Śiva's drum arose Sanskrit and from the sound of the left side, Tamil, and that Śiva gave Sanskrit to Pāṇini and Tamil to Agastya. In a Sanskrit work called *Śambhuraḥasya*, which is in the form of a dialogue between Śiva and Subrahmanya, Śiva says: "Endowed by me with knowledge, the sage Agastya wrote Tamil grammar; so Tamil being *ārsha*, i.e., derived from a *ṛishi* author, does not fall under the head of *apabhraṃśa* (corrupt language) just as is the case with Āndhra, Kārṇāṭa, Ghaurjara and other languages which are not *ārsha*."\* Another tradition says that Agastya, having had a quarrel with the Sanskrit Pandits of Kāśi, came to the south and established the Tamil language. Invention of a language by an individual is, however, opposed to the principles of philology. Language is social and national, not individual. It is a social product, springing up with the first community and developing with the increasing needs of culture and civilisation. A grammar pre-supposes previous literature.† *Tolkāppiyam* has

\* ಮಾಮುದಿಶ್ಯ ತಪಶ್ಚಕ್ರೇ ಪುರಾಗಸೋ ಮಹಾಮುನಿಃ |  
ಮಯಾ ಪ್ರದತ್ತವಿಜ್ಞಾನೋ ದ್ರಾಮಿಡೀಂ ವ್ಯಾಕೃತಿಂ ವ್ಯಧಾತ್ ||  
ನಾಪಭ್ರಂಶತ್ಯದೋಷೋಸ್ತಿ ದ್ರಾಮಿಡೀನಾಂ ಗಿರಾಂ ತತಃ |  
ಅನಾರ್ಪಮಾಂಧ್ಯಕಾರ್ಣಾಟ ಭಾರ್ಜರಾದ್ಯಂ ಪಿ ಭಾಷಿತಂ ||  
ಅಪಭ್ರಂಶಂ ವಿಜಾನೀಯಾತ್ ||

† ಇಲಕ್ಕಯಮಿನ್ರಿ ಯಲಕ್ಕಣಮಿನ್ನೇ | ಇಲಕ್ಕಣಮಿನ್ರಿ ಯಲಕ್ಕಯಮಿನ್ನೇ |  
ಎಣ್ಣಿನೈಣ್ಣಿಯದುಪ್ಪದು ಪೋಲ | ಎಲಕ್ಕಯತ್ತಿನಿನ್ನೆದು ಪದುಮಿಲಕ್ಕಣಂ ||

—ಪೇರಗತ್ತಯಂ.

quotations from older authors. If Agastya wrote a grammar at all, he must have based it on the works of previous authors. The indigenous words *eluttu* (a letter) and *śuvādi* (a book) in Tamil prove that Agastya did not bring the alphabet. The story of Agastya has to be taken to mean that he was an early sympathetic cultivator of the language. Tamil has a copious vocabulary, relatively independent of Sanskrit, and a wide range of literature. It is, as will be seen further on, more closely related to Kannaḍa than to any other member of the Dravidian group.

Malayāḷam is composed of the two words *mala*, a mountain, and *ālam*, a verbal derivative from the root, *āl*, to possess, to rule, which likewise

occurs in this connection in the forms *ālma* or *āyma*, a softened form of *ālma* corresponding to the Tamil *āṇmai*. The whole word means "the mountain region," and then the language of that region. Caldwell considers Malayāḷam to be a very ancient offshoot of Tamil, differing from it chiefly at present by its disuse of the personal terminations of the verbs, and the larger amount of Sanskrit words it has incorporated into its vocabulary. Personal terminations began to be dropped after the 13th century, and by the end of the 15th they had gone completely out of use. Tuñjattu Eluttachchan, a noted writer of the 16th century, seems to have introduced the present alphabet, which appears to have been derived from the Grantha, the character in which Sanskrit is written in the Tamil country. The proportion of Sanskrit words adopted by the Dravidian languages is least in Tamil, greatest in Malayāḷam. Malayāḷam has a close relationship to Tamil.

In point of euphonic sweetness Telugu is said to occupy the first place among Dravidian idioms. It was called by the Europeans *gentoo*, a corruption of the Portuguese *gentio*, a heathen. The term was originally, *i.e.*, in 1648, applied to

all Hindus as opposed to the Moors or Muhammadans, and came in time to mean the Telugus alone, Telugu is called Āndhra by Sanskrit writers. The term Āndhra occurs as the name of an Indian people in the Aitarēya Brāhmaṇa, the Rāmāyaṇa, the Mahābhārata and in the Aśōka inscriptions of the third century B.C. Pliny calls them Andarae. The Āndhra language is mentioned by the Chinese pilgrim, Hwen Thsang, about the middle of the seventh century, who says that it differed from that of Central India, whilst the forms of the written characters were for the most part the same. The name Telugu, which also occurs in the forms Teluṅgu, Teliṅga, Tailinga, Tenugu and Tenuṅgu, is said to be derived from Triliṅga, "the language of the three lingas," i.e., of the country of which three famous linga temples formed the boundaries. According to tradition Śiva as a linga descended on three mountains, namely, Kālēśvara, Śrīśaila and Bhīmēśvara, which marked the boundaries of the Telugu country. The Prākṛit form of Trilinga is Telinga. The Telugu country was called Telingāna by the Muhammadans. Besides Trilinga the Telugu country had likewise the name Trikalīṅga given to it. Telugu Pandits derive the name Tenugu from *tēne*, honey, and say that the name indicates the mellifluous character of the language. In the Tamil country Telugu is known as Vaḍugu, and the Telugus as Vaḍugar from *vaḍa*, north, the Telugu country lying to the north of the Tamil. According to tradition the first Telugu author was the sage Kaṇva who lived at the court of Āndhrarāya and wrote Telugu grammar. Atharvaṇāchārya, who lived at the beginning of the thirteenth century, names, besides Kaṇva, Bṛihaspati, Hēmachandra, Pushpadanta, Rāvaṇa, Gautama and Dharmarāja as writers on Telugu grammar in his *Trilingaśabdānuśāsana*. None of these grammars has come down to us. In Tamil we have only one sage Agastya as the formulator of the rules of grammar, but here we have a good number of them besides Rāvaṇa, the demon king of Lanka.

Unlike Tamil and Telugu, Kannaḍa has no sage's name associated with its literary origin. But the name Karṇāṭa or Kannaḍa is very old.

It occurs as early as the sixth century in Varāhamihira's *Bṛihatsamhitā*, and its mention in Sōmadēva's *Kathāsaritsāgara*, probably due to its being mentioned in his source, viz., the *Paiśāchi Bṛīhat-kathā* of Guṇādhya, carries it further back to the earliest centuries of the Christian era. It also occurs in the form Karuṇāḍar in the Tamil poem named Śilappadikāram which is supposed to go back to the second century A.D. and in the form Karuṇāḍagan in the Vēlvikudi plates (c. 770) of the Pāṇḍya king Śaḍaiyan Parāntaka. The Sanskrit poet Rājaśekhara (c. 900) refers in his *Kāvya-mīmāṃsā* to the mannerisms of the Karṇāṭas in reading their books.

According to Caldwell, the term Karṇāṭaka was at first a generic denomination of the plateau of the Southern Dekhan. He goes on to remark :—

“ Karṇāṭaka has now got into the hands of foreigners who have given it a new and entirely Wrong use of the erroneous application. When the Muhammadans arrived in Southern India, name Karṇāṭaka. they found that part of it with which they first became acquainted—the country above the Ghāts, including Mysore and part of Telingāna—called the Karṇāṭaka country. In course of time, by a misapplication of terms, they applied the same name, the Karṇāṭak or Carnāṭic, to designate the country below the Ghāts, as well as that which was above. The English have carried the misapplication a step further, and restricted the name to the country below the Ghāts, which never had any right to it whatever. Hence the Mysore country, which is properly the Carnāṭic, is no longer called by that name by the English, and what is now geographically termed “ the Carnāṭic ” is exclusively the country below the Ghāts on the Coromandel Coast, including the whole of the Tamil country and the District of Nellore only in the Telugu country.”

The derivation of Karṇāṭa or Kannaḍa is uncertain. Dr. Gundert proposed *Kar-nāḍu*, “ the black country,”

as the original form of Karnāṭa, in allusion to the black cotton soil which characterises the plateau of the Southern Dekhan in which the language is spoken.

Derivation of Kar-nāṭa or Kannaḍa. Other scholars have suggested that Karnāṭa is derived from *Karu-nāḍu* "the elevated country," with reference to the height of the plateau above the sea level. Indian grammarians have expressed the opinion that Kannaḍa is a *tadbhava* or corrupt form of Karnāṭa, though it is more likely that the latter is a Sanskritised form of the original Kannaḍa. We may compare with this Punnāṭa, the Sanskritised form of Punnāḍu, a kingdom which existed in the south of Mysore in the early centuries of the Christian era. Ptolemy names it Pannata in the second century. The original form of Kannaḍa was most probably Kannāḍu (compare Punnāḍu) which was subsequently changed into Kannaḍu and lastly into Kannaḍa. The form Kannaḍu as the name of the language is even now heard in some parts of the Kannaḍa country. The suggested derivation from Kar-nāḍu, the black country, may seem appropriate to outsiders, but the Kannaḍigas themselves are not likely to designate their language "the black country language." The Tamils and Telugus derive their respective languages from words which bear the signification of sweetness, though outsiders may suppose that it is an afterthought. It is not therefore too much to presume that the Kannaḍigas also must have applied some good attribute to their language, and this attribute, I think, is fragrance as indicated by the derivation from Kammitu (fragrant) + nāḍu (country), which words when compounded become Kannāḍu. Kannāḍu, *i.e.*, Kannaḍa, thus means the language of the fragrant country, and the epithet fragrant may be considered appropriate to the Kannaḍa country abounding as it does in sandal forests and lotus ponds, the latter being invariably described by Kannaḍa poets as one of its most characteristic features.

With regard to the antiquity of the Kannaḍa language, one or two points may be mentioned.



According to Jaina tradition, Brāhmi, the daughter of Rishabhadēva, the first Tirthankara, invented eighteen alphabets including, among others, Kan-

naḍa. Recently a curious inscription of about the ninth century was found in a Jaina temple in the Deoghar Fort containing specimens of different alphabets mostly Dravidian.\* Among the papyri belonging to the second century A.D., discovered at Oxyrhynchus in Lower Egypt, there is one which contains a Greek play or farce, based upon the story of a Greek girl carried off to the coast of India and rescued by her brother, in which there occur some Indian words which, according to Dr. Hultsch, are Kannada.†

Kannada is closely related to Tamil. They alone have a regular feminine gender. Kannada closely related to Tamil. The various suffixes of the plural of rational and irrational nouns

are essentially the same in both and they are more consistently distinguished than in most other connected forms of speech. Both languages agree in the principles for the formation of the oblique base. There are also a few points of difference between the two languages. Kannada agrees with Telugu in the formation of the oblique cases of the singular of the pronouns I and thou and in possessing a present participle. But it differs more widely from Telugu than it does from Tamil.

A word or two may now be said about the uncultivated Dravidian languages of the South, namely, Tulu, Koḍagu, Tōḍa, Kōṭa and Baḍaga, which may be looked upon as dialects of Kannada by reason of their closer relationship to that language than to any other of the Dravidian tongues, as indicated in the following statements: "Tulu does not differ widely from Kanarese;" "Koḍagu may be regarded as standing about midway between Old

\* Report on the Hindu and Buddhist Monuments, Northern Circle, 1918, p. 19.

† Mysore Archaeological Report for 1904.



Kanarese and Tuḷu"; "Kōta may be considered as a very rude dialect of Kanarese"; "Baḍaga is an ancient dialect of Kanarese"; "the language (Tōda) seems to have been originally Old Kanarese, and not a distinct dialect."

Tōda, the language of the Tōdas or Todavar of the Nilgiris, is peculiar in having the sound *f*; *e.g.*, pūf, insect. It has very few case-signs, there being no difference in it between the nominative, genitive and accusative. The earliest mention of the Todavar has been met with in an inscription, No. 83 of the Chāmarājānagar Taluk of the Mysore District, dated 1117, which states that Puṇisa, the general of the Hoysala king Viṣṇuvardhana, frightened them during his conquest of the Nilgiris. Kōta, the language of the Kōtas of the Nilgiris, is said to have been carried thither by a persecuted low caste tribe at some very remote period. In this language the sign of the genitive case is *a*, of the dative *ke* and of the locative *olge*; and the infinitive is formed by adding *alīk* to the root; *e.g.*, *tin*, eat, *tinālik*, to eat. All this shows how closely it is allied to Kannaḍa. Baḍaga, the language of the Baḍagas, who form the most numerous class of people inhabiting the Nilgiris, is a more ancient form than ordinary Kannaḍa and agrees in several particulars with the language of old literature. The sounds *r* and *l* are still found in the language, though in several cases *l* is used in the place of *r*; *e.g.*, *aṛi*, to know; *ēru*, to ascend; *kuri*, a sheep; *keṛe*, a tank; *irḷu* for *irulū*, night; *tingḷu* for *tingaḷu*, the moon; *avḷa* for *avaḷu*, she; *makkḷa* for *makkaḷu*, children. A peculiarity about the use of *l* is that it occurs generally as a subscript of the first or second syllable of a word instead of forming the next syllable as in Kannaḍa and other allied forms of speech; *e.g.*, *kḷee*, for *kīḷu*, to pull out; *bḷū* for *bīḷu*, to fall; *mḷūgu* for *muḷugu*, to sink; *hogḷu* for *hogaḷu*, to praise; *hḷā* for *hāḷu*, ruin; *hḷayē* for *hale*, old; *hḷoye* for *hoḷe*, a river; *gluyi* for *guḷi*, a pit. The personal pronoun of the first person singular

is *nām*, I; the dative suffix is *ga*, *holaga* (*holakke*), to the field; the past tense of the verbs agrees with Old Kannaḍa: *māḍidem*, I did. The Baḍagas are mentioned in ancient Tamil literature in verse 253, attributed to the old poet Nakkīrar, of the anthology known as *Aga-nānūru* in connection with the Mysore king (Erumaiyūrān—he of Mahishapura or Mysore) who is stated to be related to them. Tuḷu, though destitute of a literature, is one of the most highly developed languages of the Dravidian family. The name Tuḷu which means mild, meek, humble, refers to the people rather than to the language. The Tuḷus have the reputation of being the most conservative portion of the Dravidian race. Tuḷu does not differ much from Koḍagu. The dialect from which it differs most is Tamil. Koḍagu is the language of the Coorgs, the people of Coorg or Koḍagu. The name is derived from *kuḍa*, west, and means the western country. The earliest mention of the Coorgs or Koḍagas is found in an inscription, No. 20 of the Huṇsur Taluk of the Mysore District, dated 1174, which records that the Changālva ruler Pemma Virappa, aided by the Koḍagas of all the Nāḍus, attacked Beṭṭarasa, the general of the Hoysaḷa king Ballāḷa II, sent to put down the Changālva king Mahādēva whom he killed in battle, but was defeated. Koḍagu has preserved its form comparatively free from change owing to the retired position of the people who speak it.

Two lists of words are given below, one to show the glossarial affinities of Kannaḍa and the three dialects of the Nilgiris noticed above, namely, Tōḍa, Kōṭa and Baḍaga, as also the two minor dialects of the same place Kuṛumba and Iruḷa; and the other to show the glossarial affinities of Kannaḍa and the two dialects Tuḷu and Koḍagu. It will be seen that there is scarcely any dissimilarity in the words compared barring that due to a few dialectic interchanges.

## LIST I.

	Kannaḍa	Tōḍa	Kōṭa	Baḍaga	Kurumba	Irula	English
1	Ondu	odd	odde	ondu	ondu	ondu	One
2	Eraḍu	eḍ	eḍe	eraḍu	eraḍu	irṇḍu	Two
3	Mūṇu	mūḍu	mūnde	mūṇu	mūru	muru	Three
4	Nānu	an, anu	ane	na, nānu	nā, nānu	nānu, nā	I
5	Nāvu	em, am	euge	engla	enga	navu	We
6	Nīnu	ni	ni, niye	ni	ni	ni	Thou
7	Nīvu	nīv	nīnge	nīngla	nīnga	nīv	You
8	Iṇṇumpe	erb	irbē	irūpu	irūpu	irūmbu	Ant
9	Iṇṇu	kaṇṇ	kaṇṇu	kaṇṇu	kaṇṇu	kaṇṇu	Eye
10	Mīnu	mīn	mīnē	mīnu	mīnu	mīnu	Fish
11	Pāvu	pāb	pābe	pāmbu	hāvu	pāmbu	Snake
12	Hāvu	vā	vāge	ba	ba	barave	Come

## LIST II.

Kannaḍa	Tulu	Koḍagu	English
Kuṛi	kuri	kori	Sheep
Siḍi	teḍil	cheḍil	Thunderbolt
Nālage	nālayi	nālayi	Tongue
Kittile	kittili	kittuli	Orange
Mūru	mūji	mūnd	Three
Kiṛidu	kird	cheriya	Small
Paṭti, hatti	parti	parati	Cotton
Ombattu	ormba	oyimbadu	Nine

The numbers of the races speaking Kannaḍa and its dialects are estimated at about eleven and a half millions.

## CHAPTER II.

History of the Kannaḍa language. Scope of History of language. State of Dravidian philology in Southern India. Indian and European scholars. The range of Kannaḍa about a thousand years ago. Its influence in the Telugu country. Kannaḍigas: their civilisation. Phonology. The alphabet. Derivation from the Aśōka alphabet. Points of agreement and difference between the Kannaḍa and Tamil alphabets. Phonetic system. Help of Tamil in determining words containing *r* and *ḷ*. Euphonic combination. Vocalic harmony. Dialectic interchange. Interchange of vowels. Interchange of consonants.

AFTER these introductory and preparatory remarks, we may proceed to examine the History of the Kannaḍa language in some detail and try to give a brief account of its history. We have already said something in a general way about the antiquity of the language, its inclusion as an important member in the Dravidian group of languages and its affinities to the other main members of the group in grammar. We shall now proceed to make a detailed examination of the language, and since the study of a language without reference to any other serves no useful purpose, we shall, as far as possible, compare and contrast the language with its sister languages in respect of the points that are brought under examination.

Language has been defined as the expression of thought by means of speech sounds. As language is constantly undergoing change, we can speak of a history of it; and it is the business of an historical investigation to trace the changes in the language. These changes take place gradually so that the speakers of the language are unconscious of them; and this accounts for the uniformity of the language

which otherwise would become unintelligible. The history of a language deals mainly with its grammar and vocabulary together with the changes that have taken place in it. The grammar of every language is full of irregularities, exceptions, anomalies and inconsistencies owing to imperfect correspondence between grammatical form and grammatical function. In a perfect language every grammatical category would correspond exactly to some logical category, and there would be no room for a history or science. The peculiar charm of the study of languages lies precisely, as has been rightly said, in the mixture of the rational and the irrational, the arbitrary and exceptional with the symmetrical and regular, which they all present.

Before dealing with the history of the Kannada language, a few remarks may be made on the state of Dravidian philology in Southern India. It

may generally be stated, with due deference, that Indian Pandits can scarcely be of much help to us in this department of research. Some of them believe that Sanskrit, *the language of the gods*, is the primeval form of speech from which all other languages, no matter in what part of the world they are spoken, are derived. There are others who do not, however, go so far, but believe that all the languages—Gaudian, Dravidian and Kolarian of India, at any rate, are derived from Sanskrit. They are, of course, right in their derivation of the Gaudian languages from Sanskrit. The presence of Sanskrit words more or less in the vocabularies of several of the Dravidian languages has led them to believe that this group of tongues is also derived from Sanskrit, though a slight examination into the vocabulary of any one of these languages would have clearly shown that the non-Sanskritic portion is very greatly in excess of the Sanskrit. The fact is that comparative study of languages is a thing with which the Indian Pandit is not familiar. A Pandit may have devoted his whole life-time to mastering the in-



tricacies of the grammar of one language without giving so much as a thought to any striking resemblance that may present itself to him in the grammar of some other language. There is no lack of Pandits in all the Dravidian languages. There are even some who have made two or three of them the subject of their special study and possess equal proficiency in them. Their high proficiency in these languages, which would otherwise have proved of inestimable value, is not of much service to philologists owing to their unfamiliarity with the principles of comparative philology. An exception that I have come across is Pandit S. Krishnamacharya, the author of a Kannada grammar styled *Hosagannada-nuḍigannadi*, which he wrote in about 1830. He notices in this work the relationship between Tamil and Kannada and formulates some rules according to which, in his opinion, Tamil words undergo alteration in Kannada.

Indian graduates well trained in the Western modes of thought, who may be supposed to possess a critical scholarly habit of mind, may rightly be expected to do something for the advancement of Dravidian philology. But with one or two exceptions, no Indian scholar has as yet produced a work of any importance tending to promote an intelligent and critical study of the Dravidian forms of speech. The late Professor M. Seshagiri Sastri, M.A., of the Madras Presidency College, did some notable work in this line, but he believed, like Dr. Pope, that the Dravidian tongues were derived from Sanskrit. It was, however, reserved for Europeans to do much useful work for us in the field of Dravidian languages. European scholars, though tolerably well versed in one of the languages of the Dravidian group, are likely to go wrong in making generalisations, owing to their imperfect acquaintance with the others. But they have done a world of good by writing valuable works on the languages which they had made their special study. Thus Rice and Kittel have earned the gratitude of the Kannadigas; Beschi, Pope, Ellis

and Percival, of the Tamils; Campbell and Brown, of the Telugus; and Gundert, of the Malayālis. Caldwell and Sten Konow have done very useful work for the Dravidian group as a whole. By writing his *Comparative Grammar*, Caldwell has done very valuable service to the Dravidians. His work marks an era in the history of the Dravidian languages and has given an impetus to the critical and comparative study of those tongues. Sten Konow's articles on the Dravidian languages in the *Linguistic Survey of India* are of considerable value for the critical study of this group. Similarly, we are indebted to Europeans for works on the dialects of Kannaḍa; to Brigel, Hodgson, Major Cole and Pope for their grammars of the Tulu, Baḍaga, Koḍagu and Tōḍa languages respectively. The same is likewise the case, with one or two exceptions, with regard to the Dravidian dialects of Northern India.

Regarding the range and principal seats of the

The range of Kannaḍa about a thousand years ago.

Kannaḍa language a thousand years ago, *i.e.*, at about the beginning of the 9th century, we have the following interesting particu-

lars given in the *Kavirājamārga* of the Rāshṭrakūṭa king Nṛipatunga or Amōghavarsha I (815-877):—

“The region in which Kannaḍa was spoken extended from the Kāvēri as far as the Gōḍāvari. The Kannaḍa spoken in the district lying within Kisuvoḷal, Kopana, Puligere and Onkunda was the pure well of Kannaḍa undefiled.”\*

The range given above includes a considerable part of what is now regarded as a purely Mahrāṭṭa country.

---

\* ಕಾವೇರಿಯಿಂದಮಾ ಗೋ  
ದಾವರಿವರಮಿದನಾಡದಾಕನ್ನಡದೊಳ್ ;  
ಭಾವಿಸಿದ ಜನಪದಂ ವಸು  
ಧಾವಳಯವಿಲ್ಲನವಿಶದವಿಷಯವಿಶೇಷಂ ||  
ಅದಜೊಳಗಂ ಕಿಸುವೊಲಾ  
ವಿದಿತಮಹಾಕೊಪಣನಗರದಾಪುಲಗೆಟೆಯಾ |  
ಸದಭಿಸ್ತು ತಮಪ್ಪೊಂಕುಂ  
ದದ ನಡುವಣ ನಾಡೆ ನಾಡೆ ಕನ್ನಡದ ತಿರುಳ್ ||

But this ought not to incline us to doubt the accuracy of Nripatunga's statement concerning the northern limit. In the 9th century Kannāḍa was spoken over a considerable part of the Mahrāṭṭa country, but subsequently it has had to yield its place to the encroaching Mahrāṭhi idiom since the rise of the Mahrāṭṭa empire. Kolhāpūr, now considered a purely Mahrāṭṭa District, was not so in ancient times, as is abundantly proved by the Kannāḍa inscriptions in the Mahālakshmi temple situated in the heart of the Kolhāpūr town, by the large number of Kannāḍa manuscripts in the Jaina Maṭha at Kolhāpūr, by the Kannāḍa local names in the Kolhāpūr territory, as, for instance, Sirol (Siri-volal), and by the fact that the head of the Lakshmīsēna-maṭha at Kolhāpūr issues his circulars to this day in Kannāḍa to his numerous disciples in the Karahāṭaka-prānta, which is identical with the Satāra District, the name Karahāṭaka or Karhāḍa being now restricted to the town of that name. Further, the Political Agent at Kolhāpūr is, to the present day, always addressed as the Political Agent not of the "Dakṣiṇa-Mahārāshṭra" or "Southern Mahrāṭṭa Country," but of the "Karavira Ilākha and the Karnāṭaka-prānta." The official designation, Southern Mahrāṭṭa Country, which includes the three Kannāḍa Districts of Belgaum, Bijapur, and Dharwar, together with the Kolhāpūr, Miraj and other Indian States, is a misnomer. It is true that in one of the earliest inscriptions of Pulakēsi II (609-642) this part of the country is included in Mahārāshṭra; but this term, meaning literally "the great country," did not imply any of the racial and linguistic peculiarities which are now attached to the terms Mahrāṭṭa and Mahrāṭhi, derived from it. In the whole area of the so-called Southern Mahrāṭṭa Country, not a single Mahrāṭhi inscription has been discovered, of a greater age than two or three centuries, while all the old inscriptions hitherto found are either in Sanskrit or Kannāḍa, or in the two languages combined. This fact speaks of itself as to what the vernacular of the country

was in early times. At present, the people and the language of the British Districts are essentially Kannāḍa, and the Kannāḍa people and language have been displaced, to a certain extent, by the Mahrāṭhi people and language in the Indian States, only because those States were established by the aggressions of Mahrāṭṭas from the north, whose local influence proved to be greater than that of the rulers whom they dispossessed. The town and District of Sholapur contain numerous Kannāḍa inscriptions, though the district now counts officially as a Mahrāṭhi one. Names such as Vappuvanna and Lasthiyavva among the Silāhāras of Thāṇa betray their Kannāḍa origin. The influence of Kannāḍa in ancient times in what is now known as the Telugu country is evidenced by the Kannāḍa titles applied in old Telugu inscriptions to Telugu kings and chiefs; *e.g.*, in a Telugu Vaidumba inscription of about the 9th century, the name of a general is given as Manujaradēva;\* the Eastern Chāḷukya king Guṇaga-Vijayāditya (844-888) had the title *Guṇake-nalla*; and some of the Redḍi chiefs bore the titles *Jagad-obba-gaṇḍa* and *Jagada-Gōpāla*.† It may also be incidentally noted that in the Indrakilaparvata Telugu inscription of about the 9th century at Bezwaḍa occurs the form *samvatsaradul* with the archaic Kannāḍa locative suffix *ul* instead of the corresponding Telugu suffix *lō*.

Adi-Pampa (941) says that he wrote his *Vikramā-rajuna-vijaya* or *Bhārata* in the pithy Kannāḍa of Puligere, which is one of the four seats of pure Kannāḍa named by Nṛipatunga. Ranna (993) also states that the Kannāḍa of the two (which make together a six-hundred) was pithy Kannāḍa‡ and that he wrote in it. The two referred to by Ranna are the Belvola three-hundred and the Puligere three-hundred,§ so that

\* Madras Epigraphical Report, 1923, p. 98.

† *Ibid.*, p. 124.

‡ ಎರಡುನೂರು ಕನ್ನಡಮಾತೃಕ ಕನ್ನಡಂ.

§ ಬೆಳ್ವೊಲ ಮೂನೂರುಮಂ ಪುಲಗೆಟ್ಟ ಮೂನೂರುಮಂತೆರಡುನೂರುಮಂ.—*Epigraphia Indica*, XV, p. 339.

Puligere again appears as the region of pure Kannaḍa. The expression Eraḍ-aru-nūru, as the name of a province, which was an ornament of the Kuntala country, occurs in the Kalās inscription of 930,\* and the same appears as Dvi-triśatam, the two three-hundreds, in the Nilgunda inscription of 982.†

Nripatunga also makes the following interesting remarks about the intelligence and culture of the Kannaḍigas inhabiting the region of pure Kannaḍa already mentioned as lying within Kisuvolal, Kopana, Puligere and Onkunda :—

“ Skilled are the people of that region in making speeches with apt words and also in understanding and pondering over (others') speeches. Naturally intelligent, they are, even without special study, versed in the usages of poetry. All are skilful in their speech. Even young children and the dumb learn wisdom and words respectively at a hint.”‡

We learn from the Ceylonese Buddhist Chronicle *Mahāvamsā* that the Maurya emperor Aśoka sent in the 3rd century B.C. a Buddhist missionary named Rakkhita to Banavāsi, situated on the north-west border of the Mysore State, and another named Mahādēva, to Mahisha-Maṇḍala, probably Mysore. The late Dr. Fleet was of opinion that Mahiṣha-Maṇḍala did

\* ಕುಂತಳಧರಾತಳಂ ; ತದ್ವಿಷಯಕ್ಕರಡಲುನೂಲು ಲರಾಮಂ.—  
*Epigraphia Indica*, XIII, p. 326.

† *Ibid*, IV, p. 207. The term ಎರಡಲುನೂಲು has been taken in the sense of 1,200 and wrongly applied to Kopana by some scholars without any literary or epigraphical evidence for doing so.

‡ ಪದನುಡಿದು ನುಡಿಯಲುಂ ನುಡಿ  
ದುದನುಡಿದಾರಯಲುಮಾರ್ಪರಾ ನಾಡವರ್ಗಳ್ |  
ಚದುರರ್ ನಿಜದಿಂ ಕುಖಿತೋ  
ದದೆಯುಂ ಕಾವ್ಯಪ್ರಯೋಗಪರಿಣತಮತಿಗಳ್ ||  
ಕುಖಿತವರಲ್ಲದ ಮತ್ತಂ  
ಪೆಜರುಂ ತಂತಮ್ಮ ನುಡಿಯೊಳ್ಳಿಲ್ಲಂ ಜಾಣರ್ |  
ಕಿಲುವಕ್ಕಳುಮಾಮೊಗರು  
ಮುಖಪೆಲ್ಕುಣಿವರ್ ವಿವೇಕಮಂ ಮಾತುಗಳಂ ||



not refer to Mysore but to a province on the banks of the Narbadā. But Mahiṣha-rāṣhṭra or Maisa-nāḍu occurs as the name of the Mysore country in inscriptions and literature. *Maisa* is only a *tadbhava* or corrupt form of *Mahiṣha*, a buffalo. In the Tamil Anthology called *Aganānūru*, verse 115 composed by the ancient poet Māmūlanār, who has been assigned by some scholars to about the 2nd century A.D., names Erumai-nāḍu (erumai=a buffalo), which may be compared with Maisa-nāḍu mentioned above, and says that it was situated in the west. Verse 36 attributed to Nakkirar, another ancient poet, tells us that in a battle that was fought at Talaiyālangānam the Pāṇḍya king Neḍuñjeliyan defeated the combined forces of these seven chiefs, namely, the Chēra, the Chōḷa, Tidiyan, Eḷini, Irungōvēnmān, Porunan and Erumaiyūrān (he of Mahiṣhapura or Mysore). And verse 253 of the same poet states that Erumaiyūrān was related to the Baḍagas. In another old Tamil work called *Śilappadikāram* it is stated that the Chēra king Śenguttuvan, who, according to some scholars, ruled in the 2nd century A.D., while on an expedition to the north, stayed on the Nilgiris and witnessed with great pleasure the dance of the Kannaḍigas. We gather from the Ceylonese chronicles that a Chōḷa king named Elala conquered Ceylon in 205 B.C. with the help of a Mysore army.\* An inscription of the Rāṣhtrakūṭa king Dantidurga, of about the middle of the 8th century, states that the Karnāṭaka army was capable of defeating the Pallava king of Kānchi, and the Kēraḷa, Pāṇḍya and Chōḷa kings.† The Kaḷabhras, mentioned in the Vēlvikuḍi plates (c. 770) of the Pāṇḍya king Saḍaiyan Parāntakan as having gained possession of the Pāṇḍya country in about the 7th century, are believed to be Karnāṭas. The Vaḍugar (Baḍagas) of Erumai-nāḍu (Mysore) formed the advance guard of the Mōriyar of Tamil Sangam literature or

\* *The Lost Cities of Ceylon*, p. 26.

† *Indian Antiquary*, XI, p. 114.



Mauryas of Konkan who ruled in the 5th, 6th and 7th centuries and went to help the Kōṣar against Mōhūr, the general of the Pāṇḍya king Nedunjeliyan.\* Almost all the dynasties of rulers in the Dekhan and the South, such as the Ganga, the Kadamba, the Chālukya, the Rāshtrakūṭa, the Hoysala, the Sēvuna, the Kalachurya, the Raṭṭa, the Śilāhāra, the Kongāḷva, the Changāḷva, the Vaidumba, the Sinda, the Bāṇa, the Nolamba, the Sāluva, the Sāntara, the Sēnavāra, the Punnād and those of Vijayanagar, Mysore and Coorg, have been Karnāṭa, as also the lines of Pālegārs or minor chiefs, such as those of Keḷadi, Ummattūr, Nuggehalli, Bēlūr, Sugaṭūr, Hadinādu, Mudigere, Chitaldrug, Nidugal, Chennapaṭṭaṇa, Māgaḍi, Elahanka, Sante-Bennūr, Piriyaṭṭaṇa, Chikkanāyakanahalli, Maddagiri, Bijjavara, Kōṭe and Kaḷale. There were, moreover, Karnāṭaka dynasties of rulers even in Gujarāt and Nēpāl.

The civilisation of the Kannadigas, as indicated by the indigenous words of their language, was by no means negligible, though not of a very high standard. The Kannadigas were well acquainted with agriculture† and possessed some knowledge of the ordinary arts of life, such as spinning, weaving, house building,‡ etc. They knew some of the ordinary metals§ such as gold, silver, iron and copper; and some of the planets|| which were ordinarily known to the ancients such as the sun, the moon, the crescent, venus and the ascending node. They delighted in war and were armed with severa

\* *Journal of the Royal Asiatic Society*, 1924, p. 666.

† ಉಬುವುದು, ಕುಳ, ಕುಂಟೆ, ಕೂರಿಗೆ, ಏರು, ಎಬ್ಬು, ಏತೆ, ಸಯರು, ಕಳೆ, ಕದಿರು, ತೆನೆ, ಬಯಲು, ಕೊಳ, ಕಾಲುವೆ, ಕೆಪ್ಪೆ, ಏರಿ, ತೊಂಬು, ಅಲ, ಕೊಯಲು, ಕುಡುಗೋಲು, ಒಕ್ಕಣ್ಣಿ.

‡ ನೂಲುವುದು, ಟಾಟೆ, ಪಟ್ಟಿ, ತುಬಟ, ನೇಯುವುದು, ಹಾಸು, ಹೊಕ್ಕು, ಪಟೆ; ಮನೆ, ಬಾಗಿಲು, ಸೂರು, ಹಿತ್ತಿಲು, ಓವರಿ, ಕಡೆ, ಕದ, ಜಗಲಿ, ಕೇರಸಿ, ಮಣ್ಣು, ಮರ, ಗಾರೆ, ಗಚ್ಚು, ಇತ್ಯಾದಿ.

§ ಪೂರ್ಣ, ಬೆಳ್ಳಿ, ಕರ್ಮಣ (ಕಬ್ಬಿಣ), ಕಿಷು (ತಾಮ್ರ).

|| ನೇಸಣು, ತಿಂಗಳ್, ಪೆಪ್ಪೆ, ಬೆಳ್ಳಿ, ಚಾಪ್ (ರಾಹು).

weapons\* such as the bow, arrow, spear, shield and sword. They had marriage, medicines, hamlets, rafts, ships, festivals, numerals up to one thousand, measures of length, weight and capacity, and fractions.† They had all the necessary words for everyday use. The Tamilians acknowledged the existence of God and built temples to His honour. But the Kannaḍigas, like the Telugus, have no words expressive of the ideas of God and temple. Telugu has no indigenous words to denote even the sun and moon. The Kannaḍigas do not seem to have had alphabetical characters,‡ nor words to denote heaven and hell. The same was the case with the Telugus also. It may, however, be said that the Dravidians as a whole did not know hell.

Of the Dravidian alphabets, the Kannaḍa and the  
Phonology. Telugu constitute but one alphabet,  
the differences between them being  
very few and unimportant. The same is the case with  
the Tamil and the Old Malayālam.

The alphabet. The Kannaḍa and Telugu scripts,  
being adaptations of the Sanskrit alphabet, are tolerably  
perfect expressions of the sounds found in those  
languages. But the Tamil alphabet is a very imperfect  
system for expressing the Tamil sounds, and this is due,  
according to some scholars, to its not being adapted  
from a Sanskrit prototype. In old Telugu inscriptions  
the characters are almost identical with the Kannaḍa  
ones, and consequently this common script was known  
as the Kannaḍa-Telugu alphabet. Up to 1300 A.D.,  
this alphabet presented scarcely any varieties or  
differences of form of the letters sufficient to justify a  
distinction being made; but from 1300 onwards, a

\* ಪೂರ್, ಕೊಳುಗುಳ; ಬಿಲ್, ಕೋಲ್, ಇಟ್ಟಿ, ಅಡ್ಡಣ, ಕತ್ತಿ, ಕಡಿತರೆ.

† ಮದುವೆ, ಮದ್ದು, ಬಾಡ, ತೆಪ್ಪ, ಹಡಗು, ಚೆಪ್ಪು, ಒಂದರಿಂದ ಒಂಬತ್ತುರ ತೊಂಬತ್ತೊಂಬತ್ತು; ಚೋಟು, ಗೇಣು, ಅಡಿ, ಮೊಳ, ಮಾರು; ಮಣ, ವೀಸೆ, ಕೊಳಗ, ಬಟ್ಟ; ಅರೆ, ಕಾಲು, ಬೇಳೆ, ವೀಸ.



























‡ The words ಬರೆ, ಬರೆಹ, however, show that they were acquainted with writing.



marked divergence has arisen between the alphabets used by the Telugus of the coast and the Kannaḍigas, and this divergence has been much increased since the introduction of printing. The Tamil and Malayālam characters closely resemble the Grantha script which is used for writing Sanskrit in Southern India. It is generally agreed that all the Dravidian alphabets, as also the Dēvanāgarī, are derived, through the Cave characters, from the Brāhmi variety of the Aśōka alphabet. Another South Indian script, known as Vaṭṭeḷuttu on account of the round or cursive character of its letters, which was once used in the Madura and Tinnevely Districts and also on the Malabar Coast, is supposed by some scholars to be the original of the Tamil alphabet. The earliest known records written in this script are those of the early Pāṇḍya king Jaṭilavarman Parāntaka I who reigned at the close of the 8th century. It was gradually supplanted by the modern Tamil character after the conquest of the Pāṇḍya kingdom by the Chōḷas in the 11th century; and it appears to have gone entirely out of use in the Tamil country by the 15th century, though it dragged on its existence till the end of the 18th century on the West Coast, giving way eventually to Malayālam. Some of the peculiarities of Vaṭṭeḷuttu are the writing of consonants which follow one another without the intervention of a vowel on the same line, not perpendicularly as is done in the other Indian alphabets, and the system of marking the secondary vowels. The first peculiarity has been adopted by the Tamil alphabet also. The Kannaḍa and Telugu alphabets have no such peculiarities in them. According to Burnell, the Tamil alphabet is a Brāhmanical adaptation of the Grantha letters corresponding to the old Vaṭṭeḷuttu, from which, however, the last four signs, namely  $\text{ḷ}$  (ॐ),  $\text{ḷ}$  (ॐ),  $\text{ḷ}$  (ॐ) and  $\text{n}$  (ॐ), have been retained, the Grantha not possessing their equivalents. Unlike the other Dravidian alphabets, the Tamil uses  $\text{n}$  (ॐ) as a distinct letter as was done in the Vaṭṭeḷuttu. Some scholars are












opinion that the Vaṭṭeḷuttu script is independent of the South Aśōka or Cave character, that both of them are independent adaptations of some foreign character, the first to a Draviḍian, the second to a Sanskritic language, and that the resemblances between the two point to a common Semitic origin. But there are others who think that the Vaṭṭeḷuttu is derived from the Brāhmi variety of the Aśōka alphabet, through the Cave character, just like all other alphabets of India—the Dēvanāgarī, the Tamil-Grantha and the Kannaḍa-Telugu groups—though it had had a separate line of evolution. The Draviḍian numerals, too, are more or less cursive modifications of the Cave numerals.






Some instances may now be given to illustrate the derivation of the letters of the various alphabets mentioned above from the Aśōka and Cave characters.

The Aśōka *k* was a simple Latin cross . From its modified Cave form  are derived the Vaṭṭeḷuttu , the Tamil , the Dēvanāgarī , the Grantha  and the Kannaḍa and Telugu forms  *ḱ* and *ḥ*. The Aśōka symbol for *ch* was . It was modified into  in the Cave character. From this arose the Tamil , the Vaṭṭeḷuttu , the Dēvanāgarī , the Kannaḍa and Telugu forms , , , , and the Grantha forms . *P* was represented by *l* in the Aśōka alphabet. We can easily see how the Tamil , the Grantha , the Vaṭṭeḷuttu  and the Dēvanāgarī  are derived from it. The Kannaḍa and Telugu forms were derived thus , , . The Aśōka *y* was written . The Cave symbol was . There

can scarcely be any difficulty in deriving from these the Tamil and Grantha , the Vaṭṭeḷuttu , the Dēvanāgarī अ, and the Kannaḍa and Telugu ಅ, ಆ.

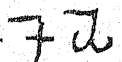





The Aśōka *a* was . The Tamil अ, the Vaṭṭeḷuttu अ, the Dēvanāgarī अ and the Grantha  can be easily derived from it. The Kannaḍa-Telugu ಅ was got through the modified forms .









The Aśōka symbol for *i* was . The Tamil இ is got by welding all the three parts of the letter together. The same is more or less the case with the Dēvanāgarī इ. The Grantha  and the Kannaḍa-Telugu ಇ are derived through the intermediate forms . *u* was represented in the Aśōka alphabet by the sign . From this the Tamil, the Vaṭṭeḷuttu and the Grantha  are easily got. So also the Dēvanāgarī उ. The Kannaḍa ಉ and the Telugu ఉ are got through the forms .

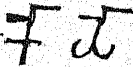








With regard to the secondary vowels, the long *ā* sound of a consonant was denoted in the Aśōka alphabet by a short horizontal line added to the right of the letter thus—. In the Cave character the line was curved down thus—. This form occurs in Kannaḍa, Telugu and Dēvanāgarī. The bent symbol became a separate part of the letter in Tamil and Grantha thus— . In the Vaṭṭeḷuttu the horizontal line was not curved but remained straight as in the Aśōka script, e.g., .

The secondary *ē* was formed in the Aśōka alphabet by the addition of a similar line to the left of the



letter at the top thus—. Later on, the line assumed a curved form thus—. This is the form found in Vaṭṭeḷuttu. In Tamil and Grantha the sign was detached from the letter and placed immediately to the left thus—; and in Dēvanāgarī over the letter thus—. But in Kannaḍa and Telugu the sign shifted its position more and more to the right of the letter and we have now the forms , .

To represent the secondary *ai* the Aśōka alphabet added two horizontal strokes to the left of the letter thus—. As in the case of *ē*, these strokes assumed a curved form, were detached from the letter and placed to the left in old Tamil and Grantha thus—; and in Dēvanāgarī over the letter thus—. In modern Tamil and Vaṭṭeḷuttu the two strokes are welded into one by being placed side by side thus—: only in Tamil it is detached from the letter—, and in Vaṭṭeḷuttu attached to it—. But in Kannaḍa and Telugu the lower curved sign which was added to the lower part of the letter was separated from it and placed below it thus—, .

The secondary *o* was formed in the Aśōka script by adding the symbol for the secondary *ā* to the symbol for the secondary *e* thus—. Later on, as stated before, the symbols assumed a curved form and were detached in Tamil and Grantha thus—, and in Dēvanāgarī thus—. The form in Vaṭṭeḷuttu was  where, as stated before, the stroke representing *ā* has not assumed a curved form. The Kannaḍa and Telugu ,  were got through forms like   .



We have thus traced the evolution of some letters of various alphabets including Kannaḍa from the Aśōka character. The marked difference that is now observed in the formation of the Dēvanāgarī characters and those of the Dravidian languages is attributed to local influences and to the custom, universal in the Dekhan and the South, of writing on the palmira leaf with an iron style. Again, though the differences between the Tamil and Kannaḍa characters, as they now exist, are so great as to lead one to doubt their common derivation from the Aśōka script, still the evidence of old inscriptions written in the two characters is quite conclusive as regards, at any rate, the close resemblance, if not perfect identity, of the two alphabets at one time. The two alphabets which resembled each other so closely at one time have now become very much altered and disguised by natural and local influences.

Both Kannaḍa and Tamil alphabets agree (1) in having a short *e* and *o*; (2) in not using the liquid semi-vowels *ri* and *lri*: Tamil has no letters corresponding to these, while Kannaḍa does not use them; (3) in having the three peculiar consonants *r* (𑌦), *l* (𑌧) and *ḷ* (𑌨); (4) in rarely using aspirated letters and sibilants, except in pronouncing and writing Sanskrit derivatives: even in pure Kannaḍa *s* occurs as *ś* does in Tamil; and (5) in not having the letter *h*: in Old Kannaḍa *h* is very rarely used, though it occurs very frequently in Modern Kannaḍa. The Tamil alphabet differs from the Kannaḍa (1) in not having aspirated letters: Kannaḍa, though possessing these letters, makes a sparing use of them, which is due, to some extent, to Sanskrit influence; (2) in using the same symbol for representing both surds and sonants; (3) in having two letters *ṇ* and *ṇ̄* to represent the *ṇ* sound: the difference in the use of these letters is—(i) that *ṇ̄* mostly occurs as a final, and *ṇ* very rarely; (ii) that *ṇ̄* is always used in com-

Points of agreement and difference between the Kannaḍa and Tamil alphabets.

bination with  $\varpi$  ( $r$ ) to represent the peculiar Tamil sound  $nra$ ; and (iii) that  $\pi$  is invariably used as the nasal of  $t$ ; and (4) in having a peculiar symbol  $\text{𑌕}$  (similar to the Aṣōka  $i$ ) formed of three cyphers in the form of a triangle, called *āydam*, which occurs in the middle of only a few words and corresponds in a manner to the Sanskrit *visarga*: this letter is very seldom used in Modern Tamil and Kannaḍa does not use the *visarga* except in some indeclinables. The chief reason for the differences between the Tamil and Kannaḍa alphabets is to be found in the fact that the grammar of the Tamil language was, to a great extent, systematised independently of Sanskrit influences, and that Sanskrit modes of pronunciation being almost unknown to the Tamilians, their alphabet, though originally derived from the same source, was greatly altered so as to suit their peculiar phonetic system. The same independence of Sanskrit influences cannot be claimed for the alphabet of the Kannaḍa language, which has mostly adhered to the alphabetical system of Sanskrit. The same is the case with its grammar. Two of the three standard works on Kannaḍa grammar, namely, the *Bhāṣābhūṣaṇa* and the *Śabdānuśāṣaṇa* are composed not in the Kannaḍa language, but in Sanskrit. It may further be added that in the whole terminology of Kannaḍa grammar there does not occur a single term of purely Kannaḍa origin, all the terms without any exception having been borrowed from Sanskrit, whereas in Tamil the case is exactly the reverse.\* Nevertheless, when due allowance is made for this and other causes which gradually made each of them an individual language, the grammatical structure of the two languages will be found to be essentially similar. The same remarks apply more or less to the Telugu language also.

---

\* To give one or two instances: "Tamil grammarians designate vowels by a beautiful metaphor, as *uyir* or the *life* of a word; consonants as *mei* or the *body*; and the junction of a vowel and consonant as *uyir-mei* or an *animated body*".

As stated before, the Kannada alphabet, as well as the Telugu, is a tolerably perfect Phonetic system. expression of the sounds found in the respective languages. In Telugu the palatals *ch* and *j* are pronounced *ts* and *dz* respectively before all vowels except *i*, *ī*, *e*, *ē*, *ai*. This peculiarity is not found in Kannada, nor in any other Dravidian language. In Tamil only one sign stands for either a surd or a sonant according to its position. Kannada has separate signs for surds and sonants, as also Telugu. Again, in Tamil nasals combine with sonants only, but in Kannada and Telugu they combine with surds also. In Kannada and Telugu *bindu* or *anusvāra* is optionally used for the nasal; but in Tamil the nasal is invariably used as there is no *bindu*. In Tamil the letters *r*, *l*, do not begin a word unless one of the vowels *a*, *i* or *u* is prefixed to them, e.g., ಅರಶಃ, ಇರಾಮಃ, ಉರೋಕಂ. Such is not the case in Kannada and Telugu. Tamil has the peculiar sound *ṭṭra* (*ṭṭra*) formed by the doubling of *p* (*r*) and this is represented by *tta* in Kannada and *ta* in Telugu: ಮಾಱು, ಮಾತು, ಮಾಟ. Another peculiar Tamil sound *ṇḍra* (*ṇḍra*) formed by the combination of *ṇ* (*n*) and *p* (*r*) becomes *nda* in Kannada and Telugu and *ṇḍa* in Tulu: ಕಢ್ಢು, ಕಂಡು, ಕಂಜಿ. *Ṣ* is not used in literary Kannada and Telugu, though very common in Tamil. In Tamil and Kannada, as also sometimes in Telugu, initial *ai* and *au* are optionally changed into *ay* and *av* respectively: ಐಯಃ, ಅಯ್ಯಃ; ಕೈವಾರಂ, ಕಯ್ಯಾರಂ; ಕವೈರ್, ಕವೈರ್; ಕಂಂಗು, ಕವಂಗು; The letters *ṣ* (*r*) and *ḷ* (*l*), now obsolete in Kannada, are in use in Tamil, Malayālam and Badaga, and *ṣ* (*r*) in Telugu. *ḷ* (*l*) however occurs in Telugu inscriptions of the 9th and 10th centuries.

The letters *ṣ* and *ḷ* are of intrinsic value for Dravidian philology. The Old Kannada alphabet had four letters, namely, *ṣ* (*r*), *ḷ* (*l*), *ṣ* (*r*) and *ḷ* (*l*) corresponding to the four letters of the Tamil alphabet *ṣ*, *ṇ*, *p* and *ḷ* respectively. Of these four letters of the Kannada alphabet, the two letters, *ṣ*

and ಂ, corresponding to ್ರ and ್ಲ of Tamil, have, as stated above, become obsolete, and ರ and ಳ are substituted for them in Modern Kannada. This is no doubt a matter for regret from a philological point of view. But the peculiarly close relationship of Tamil to Kannada comes to our help in this matter, inasmuch as even if ್ರ and ್ಲ are banished from the Kannada alphabet a tolerably good knowledge of Tamil will enable us, in the majority of cases, to determine the words which contain these letters. A number of words containing ರ, ಳ, ್ರ and ್ಲ corresponding to ್ರ, ್ಲ, ್ರ and ್ಲ respectively of Tamil is given below. To find out which words ought to contain ರ and which ್ರ, we have simply to examine the words in Tamil; and similarly with ಳ and ಂ. Kannada words which have no corresponding words in Tamil, in this particular, are very few indeed.

#### EXAMPLES.

<i>Tamil</i>	<i>Kannada.</i>	<i>Tamil</i>	<i>Kannada.</i>
ರ	ರ	ಲ	ಲ
ಅಮರ	ಅಮರ	ಅಳವು	ಅಗಲ
ಅರ	ಅರ	ಉರುಳ	ಅಬರ
ಇರು	ಏರು	ಕಳ	ಅಲಿ
ಇರುಳ	ಕುರು	ಕುಳಿ	ಅಲು
ಉದಿರ	ತರು	ಕೊಳ	ಅಲ
ಕದಿರ	ನಾರು	ತಳಿರ	ಇಲಿ
ಕರಡಿ	ನೂರು	ತಾಳ	ಉಲು
ತೇರ	ಪಾರು	ನಳ್ಳಿ	ಕೋಲಿ
ನರಿ	ಮುರು	ನೀಳ	ಪಲಿ
ಪೇರ	ಮಿರು	ಪುಳಿ	ಪುಲು

The examples given above consist of words which are exactly the same in both the languages; they do not include any words that have undergone dialectic change. Words of the latter class are very numerous and the following are a few examples of them :—

<i>Tamil</i>	<i>Kannada</i>	<i>Tamil</i>	<i>Kannada</i>
ರ	ರ	ರ	ರ
ಅರುವಿ	ಅಬಿ	ಉಕಂಗು	ಒಕಗು

Tamil	Kannada	Tamil	Kannada
r		r	
ಇರಲೈ	ಎರಲೆ	ಕಱು	ಕಱು
ಕರೈ	ಕರೆ	ಶಿಱು	ಕಿಱು
ಪೆರಿದು	ಪಿರಿದು	ತುಱು	ತೊಱು
ವರೈ	ಬರೆ	ಪಿಱು	ಪೆಱು
ವಾರ್	ಬಾರ್	ಪಿಱು	ಪೆಱು
l		l	
ಁಳ	ಎಳ	ಶುಟಿ	ನುಟಿ
ಁಳದು	ಁಳದು	ನಿಱರ್	ನೆಱರ್
ಕಳೈ	ಕಳೆ	ಮಡೈ	ಮಡೆ
ವಳೈ	ಬಳೆ	ಮುಬಂಗು	ಮೊಬಗು
ವಾಳ್	ಬಾಳ್	ವಟಿ	ಬಟಿ
ಪೆಳ್ಳಿ	ಪೆಳ್ಳಿ	ವೀಱ್	ಬೀಱ್

In Kannada, as in Tamil, words convey different meanings according as ರ or ಳ and ಕ or ಳ occur in them. Both the pairs of letters being in use in Tamil, there is not the slightest difficulty in determining the meaning of words. Unfortunately, such is not the case in Kannada. The letters ಳ and ಳ having disappeared, their places have been taken by the other letters ರ and ಕ, so that we are now deprived of the invaluable help which the difference in spelling would otherwise have afforded us in the determination of the meaning of words. Even a good knowledge of Kannada by itself will not be of much use in finding out the meaning of the words in question, in consequence of the deceptive similarity in the spelling. A knowledge of Tamil, however, will afford immense help in the matter, inasmuch as it will give a clue to the meaning of the word by giving its proper spelling. The following examples will illustrate what is meant:—

Tamil	Kannada	Meaning	Tamil	Kannada	Meaning
ಕರೈ	ಕರೆ	shore	ಇರೈ	ಎರೆ	food
ಕಱು	ಕಱು	stain	ಇಱು	ಎಱು	master
ಅರಿ	ಅರಿ	to cut	ಅರೈ	ಅರೆ	half
ಅಱು	ಅಱು	to know	ಅಱು	ಅಱು	rock



Tamil	Kannada	Meaning	Tamil	Kannada	Meaning
ತಳೆ	ತಳೆ	tie	ವಾಳೆ	ಬಾಳೆ	a kind of fish
ತಡೆ	ತಡೆ	umbrella	ವಾಡೆ	ಬಾಡೆ	plantain
ವಾಳೆ	ಬಾಳೆ	sword	ಅಳೆ	ಅಳೆ	servant
ವಾಟೆ	ಬಾಟೆ	to prosper	ಅಟೆ	ಅಟೆ	to sink

Each pair of words given here is now spelt exactly alike in Kannada. It is the corresponding Tamil words that give the proper spelling.

Badaga and Telugu may naturally be expected to give us some help in determining words with ಂ and ಃ respectively. But these languages cannot be taken as a safe guide in this matter since they show ಂ and ಃ respectively in several cases where we would expect ಕ and ರ, *e.g.*, ಅಜ್ಜ for ಅವಳು, ಇಜ್ಜ for ಇರುಳು, ಗ್ಜಾಯ for ಗಾಳಿ, ಧ್ಜಾಗು for ಬೆಳಕು ; ವಜಕು for ವರೆಗೆ, ತೀಜು for ತೀರ್, ಅಕ್ಕರ for ಅಬ್ಬಿಜು, ಆರುವು for ಅಜ್ಜವು. Still the help of these languages may be availed of to a limited extent as indicated by the following examples:—ಜ್ಜೂ for ಬೀಜು, ಪ್ಜೂಗು for ಮುಜುಗು, ಸ್ಜಯ for ಸುಜಿ, ಹ್ಜಾ for ಹಾಜು, ಆರು to become full, ಅಜು to dry ; ತೇರು chariot, ತೇಜು to settle, to clarify ; ಕರ shore, ಕಜ stain ; ಏರು a plough with draught oxen, ಏಜು river.

In Kannada, as also in Tamil and Telugu, as a general rule, hiatus between contiguous vowels is prevented by the insertion of *y* or *v*.

Euphonic combination.  
ಮನೆ + ಒಳ್ = ಮನೆಯೊಳ್ ; ಮನೈ + ಉಳ್ = ಮನೈಯುಳ್ ; ಪೂ + ಇಲ್ಲ = ಪೂವಿಲ್ಲ ; ಪೂ + ಇಲ್ಲೈ = ಪೂವಿಲ್ಲೈ ; ವಾರಿ + ಇಲ್ಲು = ವಾರಿಯಿಲ್ಲು ; ತರು + ಉ = ತರುವು.

Final vowels of words are generally elided before vowels.

ಬೀಡು + ಇಲ್ಲ = ಬೀಡಿಲ್ಲ ; ವೀಡು + ಇಲ್ಲೈ = ವೀಡಿಲ್ಲೈ ; ರಾಮುಡು + ಏಗೆನು = ರಾಮುಡೇಗೆನು.

In combination, initial surds of the second word are generally changed into sonants.

ಕೆಂ + ತಳಿರ್ = ಕೆಂದಳಿರ್ ; ಶೆಂ + ತಳಿರ್ = ಶೆಂದಳಿರ್ ; ಕೆಂಪು + ತಾಮರ = ಕೆಂದಾಮರ.

In *tatpurusha* compounds Tamil doubles the surd and hardens it.

ಪುಲಿತ್ತೋಲ್, ಪುಲಿದೋಲ್ ; ಮರಕ್ಕೊಂಬು, ಮರಗೊಂಬು.



In Telugu the change of a surd into a sonant takes place even in *dvandva* compounds.

ಅನ್ನದಮ್ಮಲು, ತಲ್ಲದಂಡುಲು.

Such is not the case in Kannada and Tamil.

The final consonants of monosyllabic nominal and verbal themes with a short initial are doubled before vowels.

ಕಣ್ + ಇಲ್ಲ = ಕಣ್ಣಿಲ್ಲ; ಕಣ್ + ಇಲ್ಲೈ = ಕಣ್ಣಿಲ್ಲೈ.

When *n* follows such themes ending in *n*, it is changed into *ṇ*.

ತಣ್ + ನೆಬರ್ = ತಣ್ಣೆಬರ್; ತಣ್ + ನಿಬರ್ = ತಣ್ಣೆಬರ್. ಕಣ್ + ನೀರ್ = ಕಣ್ಣೀರ್; ಜಾಣ್ + ನುಡಿ = ಜಾಣ್ಣುಡಿ.

When the words ಕುಱು and ಚಿಱು are followed by words with an initial vowel, *r* becomes double *t* in Kannada, double *t* in Telugu and is doubled in Tamil.

ಕುಱು + ಎನರ್ = ಕುತ್ತನರ್; ಕಿಱು + ಅಡಿ = ಕಿತ್ತಡಿ. ಕುಱು + ಉಸರು = ಕುಟ್ಟುಸರು; ಚಿಱು + ಎಲಕ = ಚಿಟ್ಟೆಲಕ. ಕುಱು + ಉಯಿರ್ = ಕುಟ್ಟುಯಿರ್ (kuttṛuyir); ಕಿಱು + ಎಲಿ = ಕಿಟ್ಟೆಲಿ (ṣittreli). The *ḍ* of ನಡು, ಕಡು and ನಿದು is changed into double *t* in all the three languages.

ನಡು + ಅಱು = ನಟ್ಟಾಱು; ನಡು + ಅಱು = ನಟ್ಟಾಱು; ನಡು + ಏಱು = ನಟ್ಟೇಱು.

There are some changes in combination which are peculiar to Tamil and Telugu.

According to the law of Vocalic Harmony or Harmonic Sequence of vowels, as stated before (p. 17), a given vowel, in one syllable of a word, or in the root, requires an analogous vowel in the following syllables of the same word, or in the particles appended to it, which therefore alter their vowels accordingly. The prevalence of this law in Telugu has already been exemplified. Traces of this law appear to occur in Kannada also in such forms as ಮಾಡುತ್ತೇನೆ, ಮಾಡುತ್ತೇವೆ, ಮಾಡುತ್ತೀರಿ, ಮಾಡಿದಿರಿ, etc. They are clearly seen in words such as ಬಿರುಕು, ಮುಱುಕು, ಕಳುಹು, ತಿಳುಹು, ಉಸರು, ಉದುರು, ಬಿದುರು, ಬಸುಕು, ಅದುರು,

where the *i* of the second syllable has been altered into *u* so as to harmonise with the vowel of the suffix or last syllable.

A consideration of the dialectic interchange of letters is very important as it enables us to identify many words which, though appearing unconnected at first sight, are in reality the same. This interchange may be classed under two heads: interchange of vowels and interchange of consonants.

### INTERCHANGE OF VOWELS.

(1) Initial *i*, either by itself or in combination with a consonant, of Tamil words, is generally changed into *e* in Kannaḍa and Telugu.

ಇಳ ಎಳ ಎಲ ; ಶಿದಲು ಕೆದಲು ಚೆದಲು ; ವಿಳಂಗು ಜೆಳಗು ಪೆಲುಂಗು ; ಶಿದಲ್ ಗೆದಲ್ ಚೆದಲ್ ; ಶಿಱ್ಱು ಸೆಱ್ಱು ಚೆಱ್ಱು ; ಪಿಱ ಪೆಱ ; ನಿಱಲ್ ನೆಱಲ್ ; ಇದಲು ಎದಲು ; ಕಿಱವಳ್ ಕೆಱವಂ ; ಪಿಱಂ ಪೆಱಂ ; ನಿಱಂ ನೆಱಂ ; ಶಿಱಪ್ಪು ಚೆಱಪ್ಪು. For further examples see under the next rule.

*Exceptions* : ಇಡು, ಇರುಳ್, ಇನಿದು, ಇಡಿ, ತಿಂಗಳ್, ಇರು, ಇಡಿ, etc.

In ಕಡು ಚೆಡು ಕಿಡು ; ಎದಿರ್ ಎದುರು ಇದಿರ್ ; ತಳವು ತೆಲವಿ ತಿಳವು ; ಶೆವಿ ಜೆವಿ ಕಿವಿ ; ನೆಡು ನಡು ; ಎಱು ಇಱು ; ಎಲ ಇಲ, etc., we see a converse change. But in Modern Kannaḍa in some cases the same forms—ಕಡು, ಎದಿರ್ occur.

(2) Final *ai* of Tamil words is changed into *e* in Kannaḍa and *a* in Telugu and Malayālam.

ಇರೈ ಎರೆ ಎರ ; ತರೈ ತರೆ ತರ ; ಕೋರಿಕ್ಕೈ ಕೋರಿಕೆ ಕೋರಿಕ ; ನಡತ್ತೈ ನಡತೆ ನಡತ ; ಅಣ್ಣೈ ಅಣ್ಣ ಅನ ; ಪಿಳ್ಳೈ ಪಿಳ್ಳೆ ಪಿಲ್ಲ ; ಕೊಳ್ಳೈ ಕೊಳ್ಳೆ ಕೊಲ್ಲ ; ಅರೈ ಅರೆ ಅರ ; ತಂದೈ ತಂದೆ ತಂದ ; ತಂಗೈ ತಂಗೆ ತಂಗ ; ನಡತ್ತೈ ನಡತೆ ನಡತ್ತ ; ಇಣ್ಣೈ ಎಣ್ಣೆ ; ಇಡೈ ಎಡೆ ; ಇರಲೈ ಎರಲೆ ; ಪಿಱ್ಱೈ ಪೆಱೆ ; ಇಲೈ ಎಲೆ ; ಇಡೈ ಎಡೆ ; ತಿರೈ ತೆರೆ ; ನಿನೈ ನೆನೆ ; ನನೈ ನನೆ ; ತೊಡೈ ತೊಡೆ ; ಮುಱೈ ಮುಱು ; ಕಡಲೈ ಕಡಲೆ ; ಕುಡೈ ಕೊಡೆ ; ಮುಣ್ಣೈ ಮುಣ್ಣ ; ಪಡೈ ಪಡೆ ; ಅಟ್ಟೈ ಅಟ್ಟೆ ; ಅಚ್ಚ ಅಚ್ಚ.

(3) Initial *u*, either by itself or in combination with a consonant, of Tamil words, is generally changed into *o* in Kannaḍa and Telugu.

ಕುಱು ಕೊಱು ಕೊಱು ; ತುರೈ ದೊರೆ ದೊರೆ ; ಮುಳ್ಳೈ ಮೊಳ್ಳೆ

ಮೊಲ; ಪುಗಡ್ ಪೊಗಡ್ ಪೊಗಡು; ಕುಳಂ ಕೊಳಂ ಕೊಲನು; ಉರಲ್  
ಬರಲ್ ರೋಲು; ಕುರಲ್ ಕೊರಲ್; ಮುದಲ್ ಮೊದಲ್; ಉದಪು ಒದಪು;  
ಗುಡೈ ಒದೆ; ಉರೈ ಒರೆ; ಉಳದು ಒಳದು; ಪುನಲ್ ಪೊನಲ್; ಮುಟ್ಟು  
ಮೊಟ್ಟು; ತುಟ್ಟು ತೊಟ್ಟು; ಪುಡೈ ಪೊಡೆ; ನುಡೈ ನೊಡೆ; ಕುಡಂ ಕೊಡಂ.

*Exceptions*: ಉಡು, ಉಪ್ಪು, ಉಣ್, ಉದಿರ್, ಉಟು; ಶುಡು  
ಸುಡು; ಉಯಿರ್ ಉಸಿರ್; ಪುಗೈ ಪುಗೆ, etc.

In ಕೊಟ್ಟು ಕೊಟ್ಟು ಕುಟ್ಟು; ಕೊಡು ಕುಡು; ತೊಡು ತುಡು, etc.,  
there is a converse change. But in Modern Kannada  
the same forms—ಕೊಡು, ತೊಡು often occur.

(4) Final *a* of Tamil roots is changed into *e* in  
Kannada.

ಇರ ಎರೆ; ಕಿಡ ಕೆಡೆ; ನಡ ನಡೆ; ಕಟ ಕಟೆ; ಮಟ ಮಟೆ; ಪುರ  
ಪೊರೆ; ಅಳ ಅಳೆ; ತಿಟ ತೆಟೆ; ಪರ ಪರೆ; ತುಟ ತೊಟೆ; ಮುಗ ಮೊಗೆ;  
ಕರ ಕರೆ.

(5) *Ā* of some Tamil words is changed into *ē* in  
Kannada and Telugu.

ನಾಣ್ ನೇಣ್; ನಾಯಿಣು ನೇನು; ಶಾಣ್ ಗೇಣ್; ಮಾಡಂ  
ಮೊಡೆ; ಅರ್ ಏರು; ಅಟು ಏಟು; ನಾನ್ ನೇನು; ಅಳ್ ಏಟು; ಯಾವೈ  
ಏನುಗು; ಅಂಡು ಏಂಡು; ಶಾಣ್ ಜೇನ.

In ಅಟು ಏಡು a short *a*, too, is changed into *ē*.

(6) A long vowel in Tamil is sometimes shorten-  
ed in Kannada and Telugu.

ಮೂಪ್ಪು ಮುಪ್ಪು ಮುಪ್ಪು; ಅರಾಯ್ ಅರಯ್ ಅರಯು; ತಪ್ಪಾದೇ ತಪ್ಪದೆ  
ತಪ್ಪಕ; ಅವರ್ ಅವರ್ ಅರುವಮು; ಅಱಿಯಾವೈ ಅಱಿಯಮೆ; ಇಲ್ಲಾವೈ  
ಇಲ್ಲಮೆ.

#### INTERCHANGE OF CONSONANTS.

(1) Uncombined medial and final *k* of Tamil  
words is changed into *g* in Kannada and Telugu.

ಪುಕಡ್ ಪೊಗಡು; ಪುಕ್ಕೈ ಪೊಗೆ ಪುಗೆ; ಪಕ್ಕೈ ಪಗೆ ಪಗ;  
ಮುಟುಕು ಮುಟುಗು ಮುಟುಗು. ಅಕರ್ ಅಗರ್; ಅಕಡ್ ಅಗಡ್; ನಿಕಡ್  
ನೆಗಡ್; ನಕ್ಕೈ ನಗೆ; ಮುಕ್ಕೈ ಮೊಗೆ; ಅರುಕು ಅರುಗು.

It has, however, to be stated that *k* in the above  
Tamil words is pronounced somewhat like *g*.

Initial *k*, too, is sometimes changed into *g*.

ಕೂನ್ ಗೂನ್ ಗೂನು; ಕುಂಡು ಗುಂಡು ಗುಂಡು; ಕೂಡೈ ಗೂಡೆ ಗೂಡೆ;  
ಕಿಳಿ ಗಿಳಿ; ಕೂಂಡು ಗೂಡು.

In some cases final double *k*, too, is changed into *g*.  
 ನೀಕ್ಕು ನೀಗು ನೀಗು ; ತೂಕ್ಕು ತೂಗು ತೂಗು ; ಮೂಕ್ಕು ಮೂಗು ;  
 ವಡಕ್ಕು ವಡಗು ; ತೇಕ್ಕು ತೇಗು ; ಅರಕ್ಕು ಅರಗು ; ತಾಕ್ಕು ತಾಗು ; ಕಾಕ್ಕು ಕಾಗೆ.

(2) Uncombined *ś* of Tamil is generally changed into *s* in Kannada and *ch* in Telugu.

ಶೆಂಡು ಸೆಂಡು ಚೆಂಡು (ಚೆಂಡು also in Modern Kannada) ;  
 ಶೀಲೈ ಸೇಲೆ ಜೇಲ ; ಶಿಱೈ ಸೆಱು ಚಿಱ ; ಶಾ ಸಾ ಚಾಚು ; ಶೂರ್ ಸೂರ್ ;  
 ಶುಡರ್ ಸೊಡರ್ ; ಶುಡು ಸುಡು ; ಶುಂಡು ಸುಂಡು ; ಶಿಲಂದಿ ಸೆಲಂದಿ ; ಪಶರೈ  
 ಪಸಲೆ ; ಕುಡಿಶೈ ಗುಡಿಸೆ ; ಅರಶು ಅರಸು.

In some cases initial *ś* is also changed into *ch* and *j* in Kannada.

ಶೇಗು ಚೇಗು ; ಶೆಂಬು ಚೆಂಬು ; ಶೆಪ್ಪೇಡು ಚೆಪ್ಪೇಡು ; ಶಕ್ಕೈ ಸಕ್ಕೆ  
 (Old Kannada). ಚಕ್ಕಿ (Modern Kannada) ; ಶೋಱುಂ ಜೋಱುಂ ;  
 ಶಲ್ಲಡೈ ಜಲ್ಲಡೆ ; ಶೋಡು ಜೋಡು ; ಶಿಣುಂಗು ಜಿನುಂಗು.

Besides the changes mentioned above, the letter *ś*, when an initial, followed by the vowels *i*, *ī*, *e*, *ē*, undergoes a further change into *k* in Kannada, and *ch* in Telugu as before.

ಶಿಱು ಕಿಱು ಚಿಱು ; ಶಿದಱು ಕೆದಱು ಚೆದಱು ; ಶೆವಿ ಕಿವಿ ಜೆವಿ ; ಶೆಯ್ ಕೆಯ್  
 ಜೇನು ; ಶಿದರ್ ಗೆದರ್ ಚೆದಲು (here *ś* is changed into *g*). ಶಿರಿ  
 ಕಿರಿ ; ಶಿರೈ ಕೆರೆ ; ಶಿಲದಿ ಕಳದಿ ; ಶಿಲರ್ ಕೆಲರ್ ; ಶಿರೈ ಕೆಲೆ ; ಶಿಱಿಯರ್  
 ಕಿಱಿಯರ್ ; ಶೀ ಕೀ ; ಶೆಂ ಕೆಂ ; ಶೆರುಪ್ಪು ಕೆರ್ಪು ; ಶೆವಿಡು ಕಿವಿಡು ; ಶೇರಿ  
 ಕೇರಿ ; ಶೇಱು ಕೆನಱು ; ಶೇಂಬು ಕೆನಪು ; ಶಿನಂ ಕಿನಿಸು.

*Exceptions*: ಶಿಲಂದಿ ಸೆಲಂದಿ ; ಶೇಗು ಚೇಗು ; ಶೇರ್ ಸೇರ್ ;  
 ಶರ್ ಸರ್ ; ಶಿಱಪ್ಪು ಚಿಱಪ್ಪು, etc.

In ಶಾಣ್ ಗೇಣ್ ಪೇನ, *ś* though followed by the vowel *ā* is changed into *g* in Kannada and *j* in Telugu instead of into *k* and *ch* respectively as usual.

(3) Uncombined medial and final *t* of Tamil is generally changed into *d* in Kannada and Telugu.

ಮುತರ್ ಮೊದರ್ ಮೊದಲು ; ಅತು ಅದು ಅದಿ ; ಇತು ಇದು ಇದಿ ;  
 ಕತಿರ್ ಕದಿರ್ ಕದುರು ; ಕಾತಲ್ ಕಾದಲಂ ; ಅತಿರ್ ಅದಿರ್ ; ಉತ್ತೈ ಒದೆ ;  
 ಒತು ಒದು.

It has, however, to be stated that *t* in the above Tamil words is pronounced somewhat like *d*.

Medial *t* is sometimes changed into *s* also.

ನುತರ್ ನೊಸರ್ ನೊಸಲು ; ಇತತ್ ಎಸತ್ ; ಮುತಲೈ ಮೊಸಲೆ.

In some cases initial *t*, too, is changed into *d*, and rarely into *s* and *j*.

ತಂಡು ದಂಡು ದಂಡು ; ತಾಂಡು ದಾಂಡು ದಾಂಡು ; ತುಡಿ ದುಡಿ ; ತಡಿ ದಡಿ ; ತುಯಿಲ್ ಸುಸಿಲ್ ; ತೋಲ್ ನೋಲ್ ; ತೇಲ್ ಬೇಲ್.

(4) Medial *y* of Tamil is sometimes changed into *s* in Kannada and Telugu.

ಉಯಿಲ್ ಉಸಿಲ್ ಉಸುರು ; ಪಯಲು ಪೆಸಲು ಪೆಸರು ; ಪೆಯುರ್ ಪೆಸರ್ ; ಮಯಿಲ್ ಮಸಿಲ್ ; ತುಯಿಲ್ ಸುಸಿಲ್ ; ನಾಯಲು ನೇಸಲು ; ವಯಲು ಬಸಿಲು ; ವೆಯಿಲ್ ಬಿಸಿಲ್ ; ಪೊಯ್ ಪುಸಿ. In ಪಯಲು ಪೆಸರು initial *a* is changed into *e*.

*Y* is rarely changed into *k* and *g* in Telugu and Kannada. ಪಾಯಿಲ್ ವಾಕಿಲ ಬಾಗಿಲ್.

(5) Initial *v* of Tamil is generally changed into *b* in Kannada.

ವಾಯ್ ಬಾಯ್ ; ವಟ್ಟಿ ಬಟ್ಟಿ ; ವಟಿ ಬಟಿ ; ವಕ್ಕಿ ಬಗಿ ; ವಾಳ್ ಬಾಳ್ ; ವಾಪ್ ಬಾಪ್ ; ವಿತಿರ್ ಬಿದಿರ್ ; ವರೈ ಬರೆ ; ವೆಯಿಲ್ ಬಿಸಿಲ್ ; ವೆತಿರ್ ಬಿದಿರ್ ; ವೀಶು ಬೀಸು.

It is sometimes changed into *m* also. ವತುವೈ ಮದುವೆ ; ವಿಂಜು ಮಿಂಡು.

(6) *N*, *l* and *l* of Tamil and Kannada are respectively changed into *n*, *d* and *l* in Telugu.

ಅಣ್ಣನ್ ಅಣ್ಣಂ ಅನ್ನ ; ಕಣ್ ಕಣ್ ಕನ್ನು ; ವಣ್ಣಯ್ ಬಣ್ಣ ವೆನ್ನ ; ಮಾಣ್ ಮಾಣ್ ಮಾನು ; ಪೂಣ್ ಪೂಣ್ ಪೊನು ; ಅಣ್ಣಿ ಅಣ್ ಅನೆ ; ಅಣ್ಣು ಅನು ; ಅಡ್ಡಣ ಅಡ್ಡನ ; ಅಣ್ಣಿ ಅನಿ.

ಪುಕಲ್ ಪೊಗಲ್ ಪೊಗಡು ; ಏಟ್ ಏಟ್ ಏಡು ; ಪಾಟ್ ಪಾಟ್ ಪಾಡು ; ಅಲು ಅಲ್ ಏಡು ; ಕೋಡಿ ಕೋಡಿ ಕೋಡಿ ; ಅಬರ್ ಅಬರ್ ಅಡಲು ; ಊಟಿಯಂ ಊಟಿಗಂ ಊಡಿಗಮು ; ಕಲುಪು ಕಡುಗು ; ಮೇಡಿ ಮೇಡಿ ; ತೆಗಡ್ ತೆಗಡು ; ಅಟಿಯಾನೆ ಅಡಿಯಾನೆ ; ಬಬರ್ ಬಡಲು.

ಕುಳಂ ಕೊಳಂ ಕೊಲನು ; ಮುಕ್ಕೈ ಮೊಳೆ ಮೊಲ ; ಆಳ್ ಆಳ್ ಏಲು ; ಆಳವು ಅಳವು ಅಲವು ; ವಿಳಂಗು ಬೆಳಗು ವೆಲಂಗು ; ಪಿಳ್ಳೈ ಪಿಳ್ಳೆ ಪಿಲ್ಲ ; ಇಳ ಎಳ ಎಲ ; ಕೊಳ್ಳೈ ಕೊಳ್ಳೆ ಕೊಲ್ಲ ; ಕಳ್ ಕಳ್ ಕಲ್ಲ ; ಅಗ್ಗಲಿಕೆ ಅಗ್ಗಲಿಕ ; ಅಳ ವಡು ಅಲವಡು.

*L* of Kannada and Tamil is also changed into *r* and *n* in Telugu. *R* occurs as the subscript of the first syllable in place of *l* of the second syllable.

ಪೊಟಿಲ್ ಪೊಟಿಲ್ ಪೊಟಿಲು ; ಪಡ್ಡೆಯತು ಪಟದು ಪ್ಪಾಡ ; ಕೀಡಲ್ ಕೆಟಗೆ ಕಿಂಡ ; ಮುಟಂಗು ಮೊಟಗು ಮೋಗು ; ಪೊಟುತು ಪೊಟು ಪೊಡ್ಡು ; ಕೊಟುಪ್ಪು ಕೊಡ್ಪು ; ವಿಟುಂಗು ವಿಂಗು ; ಮುಟುತು ಮುಟುಗು ಮುಣುಗು.



(7) Medial nasals of Tamil words generally disappear in Kannaḍa and sometimes in Telugu.

ಉಱುಂಗು ಒಱುಗು ಒಱುಗು ; ಐದು ಐದು ಐದು ; ವಿಱುಂದು ಬಿಟ್ಟು ; ಅಱುಂದು ಅಟ್ಟು ; ಪರುಂದು ಪರ್ದು ; ತುಲಂಗು ತೊಳಗು ; ನೀಂಗು ನೀಗು ; ತಾಂಗು ತಾಗು ; ತೋಂದು ತೋಡು ; ಪೊರುಂದು ಪೊರ್ದು ; ಇರುಂದು ಇರ್ದು ; ಕರುಂಬು ಕರ್ಬು ; ಪರುಂಬು ಪರ್ಬು ; ಎಲುಂಬು ಎಲ್ವು ; ಉಣಂಗು ಒಣಗು ; ಕುರುಂಬೈ ಕುರುಬೆ ; ಕೂಂದು ಗೂಡು ; ವೀಂಗು ಬೀಗು ; ಕೂಂದರ್ ಕೂದರ್ ; ಮೂನ್ದು ಮೂಱು.

But Telugu retains the nasal in a good number of words.

ಮರುಂದು ಮರ್ದು ಮಂದು ; ವಿರುಂದು ಬಿರ್ದು ವಂದು ; ಇರುಂದು ಎರದು ರೆಂದು ; ವೇಂದು ಬೇಡು ವೇಡು ; ವಿಳಂಗು ಬೆಳಗು ವೆಲುಂಗು ; ಮೂಲಂಗು ಮೋಲಗು ಮ್ಲೋಗು.

In ಅಡಂಗು ಅಡಂಗು, ತಾಂಡು ದಾಂಡು, ತೂಂಬು ತೂಂಬು, ಎಱುಂಬು ಇಱುಂಪೆ, ಶಿಱುಂಗು ಶಿಮಂಗು, etc., the nasal is retained in Old Kannaḍa but disappears in Modern Kannaḍa. Telugu also retains the nasal in the first three words, but in the third *ḷ* disappears (ತೂಮು).

In ವೇಂಬು ಬೇವು, ಪಾಂಬು ಪಾವು, ಕಾಂಬು ಕಾವು there is the change of *ḷ* into *v* along with the disappearance of the nasal. Telugu, however, retains the nasal in the first two words but omits *ḷ* as in ತೂಂಬು. The words become ವೇಮು and ಪಾಮು in it.

It has to be noted that rule 7 does not apply to the penultimate nasals of dissyllabic words with short initials.

ಅಂಜು ಅಂಜು ; ಪೊಂಗು ಪೊಂಗು ; ತಂದು ದಂಡು ; ಅಂಬು ಅಂಬು ; ಶುಂದು ಸುಂದು ; ತೆಂಗು ತೆಂಗು ; ತಂಗು ತಂಗು ; etc. The first four are the same in Telugu also.

*Exception* : ಕಷ್ಟು ಕಱು.

(8) Medial *ru* and *lu* of Tamil words generally lose *u* in Kannaḍa.

ಒರುಮೈ ಒರ್ಮೆ ; ಇರುಮೈ ಇರ್ಮೆ ; ಕಱುತೈ ಕಡ್ಡೆ ; ಪೊಯಿತು ಪೊಯ್ತು ; ಅಱುಕ್ಕೈ ಅಡ್ಕೆ ; ಉಯಿತು ಉಯ್ತು.

*U* disappears along with the nasal (rule 7) in words such as the following :—

ಮರುಂದು ಮರ್ದು ; ತಿರುಂದು ತಿರ್ದು ; ಒರುಂಗು ಒರ್ಗು ; ಶುರುಂಗು



ಸುರ್ಕು; ಪೊರುಂದು ಪೊರ್ದು; ಕರುಂಬು ಕರ್ಬು; ಪರುಂದು ಪರ್ದು; ಪುಲುಂಗು ಪುಲು; ಮುಲುಂಗು ಮುಲು.

*Exceptions*: ಅರುಕು ಅರುಗು; ಮುಲುಕು ಮುಲುಗು.

In some cases *r* and *l* change their places.

ಎರುತು ಎಲು; ಅರುತ್ತಿ ಅಲಿ; ಪರುತ್ತಿ ಪಲಿ; ಉಲುಂದು ಉರ್ದು; ಕೊಲುಪ್ಪು ಕೊರ್ಬು.

(9) Final double consonants, and sometimes medial ones, too, of Tamil words become single in Kannada and Telugu.

ಪೇಟ್ಟಿ ಪೇಟಿ ಪೇಟ; ಶರಕ್ಕು ಸರಕು ಸರಕು; ತೋಪ್ಪು ತೋಪು ತೋಪು; ಕೋಟ್ಟಿ ಕೋಂಟಿ or ಕೋಟಿ ಕೋಟ; ಪೇಟ್ಟಿ ಬೇಂಟಿ or ಬೇಟಿ ಪೇಟ; ಅಟ್ಟಂ ಅಟಂ ಅಟ; ಕೂಟ್ಟಂ ಕೂಟಂ ಕೂಟಮು; ತೋಟ್ಟಂ ತೋಟಂ or ತೋಟಂ ತೋಟ; ಓಟ್ಟಂ ಓಟಂ; ಊಟ್ಟಂ ಊಟಂ.

This rule does not apply to double consonants which are the finals of dissyllabic words with short initials.

ಶಕ್ಕಿ ಸಕ್ಕಿ or ಚಕ್ಕಿ; ಪತ್ತು ಪತ್ತು; ಮೆಚ್ಚು ಮೆಚ್ಚು ಮೆಚ್ಚು; ಪಚ್ಚಿ ಪಚ್ಚಿ; ಕಟ್ಟು ಕಟ್ಟು ಕಟ್ಟು; ಉಪ್ಪು ಉಪ್ಪು ಉಪ್ಪು.

(10) *Nr* of Tamil words is generally changed into *nd*, and sometimes into *nt* and *nd*, in Kannada and Telugu, and into *nn* in Malayalam.

ಪನ್ನಿ ಪಂದಿ ಪಂದಿ; ಒನ್ನು ಒಂದು ಒಂದು; ಕುನ್ನು ಕುಂದು ಕುಂದು; ಕನ್ನು ಕಂದು ಕಂದು; ಪೊನ್ನು ಪೊಂದು; ಅನ್ನು ಅಂದು; ಇನ್ನು ಇಂದು; ಎನ್ನು ಎಂದು; ಒನ್ನು ಒಂದು (1); ಕನ್ನು ಕಂದು (young plantain tree); ನಿನ್ನು ನಿಂದು; ಕೊನ್ನು ಕೊಂದು; ಕುನ್ನಂ ಕುಂದಂ (ಮಣ್ಣು ಕುನ್ನಂ ಮಂಕುಂದ; ಪೊಕ್ಕುನ್ನಂ ಹೊಕ್ಕುಂದ.)

ಒನ್ನಿ ಒಂಟಿ ಒಂಟಿ; ತಿನ್ನಿ ತಿಂದಿ ತಿಂದಿ; ಕುನ್ನಂ ಕೊಂಡ.

ಮೂನ್ನು ಮೂನ್ನು; ಕನ್ನು ಕನ್ನು; ಶಯ್ಕಿನ್ನ ಚಯ್ಕುನ್ನು.

(11) *Ttr* (*ಶ್ರ*) of Tamil words is generally changed into *t* and *t* and sometimes into *t* and *t* also in Kannada and Telugu.

ಶುಕ್ಕು ಸುತ್ತು ಚುಕ್ಕು; ಶಣ್ಣು ಪತ್ತು ಪಟ್ಟು; ಮಣ್ಣು ಮಣ್ಣು ಮಣ್ಣು; ಕುಕ್ಕುಯಿರ್ ಕುಕ್ಕುಸಿರ್ ಕುಕ್ಕುಸುರು; ಶಿಕ್ಕಿಲಿ ಶಿಕ್ಕಿಲಿ ಚಿಕ್ಕಿಲಿಕ; ವಣ್ಣು ಬತ್ತು; ತುಕ್ಕು ತುತ್ತು; ಒಣ್ಣು ಒಕ್ಕು; ಕುಣ್ಣು ಕುತ್ತಂ; ಪುಣ್ಣು ಪುತ್ತು; ಮಣ್ಣು ಮತ್ತೆ; ಮುಣ್ಣಿರ್ ಮುತ್ತರ್; ಪಣ್ಣು ಪೆತ್ತು; ಉಣ್ಣು ಉತ್ತು. ಶುಕ್ಕಂ ಚುಕ್ಕಮು; ಉಣ್ಣು ಉಣಿ ಉಣ; ನಾಣ್ಣು ನಾಟ; ನೆಣ್ಣು ನೆತ್ತಿ ನೆತ್ತಿ; ಏಣ್ಣು ಏತಂ ಏತಮು.

(12) *R* of Tamil and Kannada words is generally changed into *d* and *j* in Tulu and sometimes into *t*.

ನೂಲು ನೂಲು ನೂದು ; ಪೊಟ್ಟು ಪೊಟ್ಟು ಪುವೆ ; ಉಟ್ಟು ಒಟ್ಟು ಉದೆ ; ಮುಟ್ಟು ಮುಟ್ಟು ಮುದಿ ; ಮುಟ್ಟು ಮುಟ್ಟು ಮದೆ ; ಶಿಟ್ಟು ಕೆಟ್ಟು ಕೆದು.

ಮೂಡು ಮೂಡು ಮೂಜಿ ; ಆಡು ಆಡು ಆಜಿ ; ಕಡು ಕಡು ಕಂಜಿ ; ವೆಡು ವೆಡು ವಜಿ ; ವೇಡು ವೇಡು ವೇಜೆ.

*L* is generally changed into *r* and sometimes into *n*, and *l* into *n*.

ಕೋಡಿ ಕೋಡಿ ಕೋರಿ ; ಕುಡಿ ಕುಡಿ ಗುರಿ ; ಪಡ್ಡೆಯತು ಪಡ್ಡು ಪರತ್ ; ಪುಕಲ್ ಪೂಗಲ್ ಪುಗರ್. ಕಟಲೆ ಕಣಲೆ ; ಗದ ಗಣಿ. ಕೋಳ್ ಕೋಳ್ ಕೋಣ್ ; ಕೇಳ್ ಕೇಳ್ ಕೇಣ್.

*R* and *l* are also changed into *r* and *l* respectively, as in Modern Kannada.

ಕೊಟ್ಟು ಕುಟ್ಟು ಕುರಿ ; ಶಿಟ್ಟು ನೆಟ್ಟು ನೆರೆ ; ಮಿಟ್ಟು ಮಿಟ್ಟು ಮಿರಾ ; ಉಟ್ಟು ಒಟ್ಟು ಒರಗ ; ಏಟ್ ಏಟ್ ಏಳ್ ; ಶುಡಿ ಶುಡಿ ಶುಳಿ ; ಪಾಟ್ ಪಾಳ್ ; ಪಾಟ್ ಬಾಟ್ ಬಾಳ್.

(13) Many words in Tamil and Kannada become altered in Telugu by displacement of their letters, especially by the first and second letters changing their places.\*

ಅವರ್ ಅವರ್ ವಾರು ; ಉಕಿರ್ ಉಗುರ್ ಗೋರು ; ಉರರ್ ಒರರ್ ರೋಲು ; ಇರಾಪ್ಪು ಇಲ್ಲಮೆ ಲೇಮಿ ; ಉಳ್ ಒಳ್ ಲೋ ; ಇಕ್ಕೆಯದು ಎಳದು ರೇತ ; ಅಕಾತು ಅಗದು ಕಾದು ; ಇವಕ್ಕು ಇವಗ್ಗೆ ವೀರಿಕಿ ; ಇರಂಡು ಎರಡು ರೆಂಡು ; ಇರ್ ಇರ್ ಲೇ ; ಇರಾ ರೇಯ ; ಇಟ್ಟು ಹೇಡು.

The examples given under the rules mentioned above are sufficient to give one some idea of the number of common words that occur somewhat disguised in these languages. They also show the closer similarity of the Tamil and Kannada words than those of other languages.

---

\* This displacement sometimes occurs in Modern Kannada also, especially when the second letter is *h* : ಅಹಗೆ ಹಾಗೆ ; ಇಹಗೆ ಹೀಗೆ ; ಎಹಗೆ ಹೇಗೆ ; ಅಹುದು ಹವುದು ; ಅಹನು ಹೇನು , ಅಹನು ಹಾನು , etc.

## CHAPTER III.

### GRAMMAR.

Inflection of nouns. Gender and number. Case. The nominative. Inflectional increments. The second case. The third and fifth cases. The fourth case. The sixth case. The seventh case. The vocative case. Adjectives. Numerals. Pronouns. Inclusive and exclusive. Verbs. Roots. Pronominal terminations. The past and future tenses. The present tense. The negative mood. Causative verbs. Appellative verbs. The imperative. The infinitive. The relative participle. The verbal participle. The passive voice. Indeclinables. Formation of words. Verbal nouns. Participial nouns. Abstract nouns. Derivative nouns. Compound nouns.

### INFLECTION OF NOUNS.

IN the Dravidian languages the particles employed in nominal inflexions and in the declension of nouns are, generally speaking, nouns, *e.g.*, ಚೇ, ಚೇತ, ಉಞ್, etc. But the dative ಏ, ತಿ, ನೆ, ತೆ seems to have lost its original meaning. Kannada, like Tamil and Telugu, possesses not only proper, common and abstract nouns, but also appellative, verbal and participial nouns.

In Tamil, nouns are divided into ಉದರ್ ತನ್ನೈ high caste, rational, and ಅಜ್ಞಾನೈ casteless, irrational. Similarly, there is a division of nouns into *mahat* (majors) and *amahat* (minors) in Telugu. The first term in both languages denotes masculine and feminine nouns and the second neuter nouns. Kannada agrees with Tamil in distinguishing between rational and irrational objects in its gender, and in possessing, unlike Telugu which is destitute of the feminine singular, all the three genders of the third person singular. Telugu, as stated before, uses the neuter for the feminine singular, but it has a rational plural. The Tamil terminations for the

masculine singular are ಅನ್ (*an*), ಆನ್ (*ān*); in Kannada the termination is ಅನ್ (*an*), ಅನ್ (*am*); and in Telugu the terminations are ಡು (*du*), ಉಡು (*udu*), ಅಡು (*adu*). Though *an* is not seen in the Telugu terminations, we find it clearly in the words ಪಾನಿಕ, ವೀನಿಕ. ಪೊನ್ನನ್, ಪಾರ್ವನ್; ಪೊನ್ನನ್, ಪಾರ್ವನ್; ಅತಡು, ರಾಮುಡು. According to a phonetic rule in Kannada, final *n* is changed into *m*, so that the above examples become ಪೊನ್ನಂ, ಪಾರ್ವಂ. In Modern Kannada the suffix is *anu*, where the final *u* is merely a euphonic addition. It will thus be seen that the suffix in both Tamil and Kannada is the same, namely, *an*, the longer form *ān* being only a euphonic variation retained in Tamil. The suffixes for the feminine singular in Tamil are ಅಳ್ (*al*), ಆಳ್ (*āl*); and in Kannada ಅಳ್ (*al*). ಪೆರಿಯಳ್, ಇರಾಳ್; ಪಿರಿಯಳ್, ನಲ್ಲಳ್. There are besides three other suffixes which are the same in both Tamil and Kannada—ಇತಿ (*iti*), ತಿ (*ti*) and ಇ (*i*). ಪಿರಾಮಣ್ತಿ, ವಣ್ಣಾತ್ತಿ, ಮನ್ಯೆಪಿ; ಚಾಮರಿಗಿತಿ, ಪುಲತಿ, ಸುಬ್ಬಿ. The only difference is the doubling of *t* in Tamil which is likewise the case in Modern Kannada, e.g., ಅಗನಗಿತ್ತಿ. The corresponding suffix in Telugu is ಕತ್ತೆ (*katte*): ಚೆಲಕತ್ತೆ, ಪನಕತ್ತೆ. The suffixes ಅಲು (*alu*) and ಆಲು (*ālu*) also occur in Telugu corresponding to *al* and *āl* of Tamil: ಮರಡಲು, ಪೇದರಾಲು. In ಪೇದರಾಲು, ಗುಣವಂತುರಾಲು, etc., *r* is used to prevent hiatus, the termination being *ālu*. Further, the suffix ಅದಿ (*adi*) occurs in Telugu in place of *iti* of Kannada: ಗೊಲ್ಲದಿ, ಗೊಲ್ಲತಿ. Another termination occurring in Tamil is ಐ (*ai*), the phonetic equivalent of which in Kannada is, as stated before, *e*: ಮಡಂದೈ, ಮಂಗೈ, ತೆರವೈ; ಜೋಡೆ, ಪಾಣೈ, ನಿತಗೆ. *Āl* of Tamil and *ālu* of Telugu have no corresponding suffix in Kannada, which has only *al*. The neuter singular suffixes in Tamil and Kannada are ಅಂ (*am*) and ಅದು (*adu*)—sometimes only *du*: ಮರಂ, ನಿಲಂ, ಪೆರಿಯದು, ಪೆರಿದು; ಮರಂ, ನೆಲಂ, ಪಿರಿಯದು, ಪಿರಿದು. The Telugu suffixes are ಮು (*mu*) or ವು (*vu*) and ಅದಿ (*adi*): ಫಲಮು, ಗೋವು, ಚಿನ್ನದಿ. *Du* sometimes appears

as *tu* in Kannada, e.g., ಒಳ್ಳಿತು, ಮೆಲ್ಲಿತು. In Tamil and Telugu verbal nouns are formed by the suffixes *adu* and *adi* respectively; *adu* is likewise used in Modern Kannada in some parts of the Kannada country for this purpose, though in other parts the intermediate demonstrative *udu* is made use of instead of the remote demonstrative *adu* as is uniformly the case in Old Kannada. ವರುವದು is ಬರುವದು in some parts of the Kannada country, but ಬರುವದು elsewhere and ಬರ್ಪುದು in Old Kannada. ಶೆಯ್ಯದು ಕೆಯ್ಯದು; ಕಾಣ್ಬುದು, ಕಾಣ್ಬುದು; ವಂದದು, ಬಂದದು; ಕೊಂಡದು, ಕೊಂಡದು. The singular neuter noun is often used in a plural sense in these languages: ಕುದಿಲೈವಂದದು, ಕುದಿಲೈವಂದನ; ಕುದುರೆ ಬಂದದು, ಕುದುರೆ ಬಂದವು. Neuter nouns are rarely pluralised, and in Kodagu they have no plural at all.

The suffixes of the epicene plural, which are common to Tamil and Kannada, are *ar*, *kal* or *gal* and *var*: ಅವರ್ ಅವರ್; ಇವರ್ ಇವರ್; ಅರಶರ್ ಅರಸರ್; ಮಕ್ಕರ್ ಮಕ್ಕರ್; ಗುರುಕ್ಕರ್ ಗುರುಗರ್; ವೀರರ್ಕ್ಕರ್ ವೀರರ್ಕ್ಕರ್; ಅವರ್ಕ್ಕರ್ ಅವರ್ಗರ್; ಮೂವರ್ ಮೂವರ್; ನಾಲ್ವರ್ ನಾಲ್ವರ್. In Tamil there are also the suffixes *mar* and *mār* which are represented by *bar* and sometimes by *vir* in Kannada. *Mar* and *bar* are merely euphonic variations of *var*: ಎಣ್ಣರ್ ಎಣ್ಣರ್, ಪದಿನ್ನರ್ ಪದಿಂಬರ್; ತಂದೆಮಾರ್ ತಂದೆವಿರ್; ತಾಯ್ನಾರ್ ತಾಯ್ವಿರ್; ದೇವಿಮಾರ್ ತಂಬಿಮಾರ್. Another rational plural suffix common to Tamil and Kannada is *ir*, though the lengthened form *īr* is also used in Tamil. ಪೆಂಡಿರ್ ಪೆಂಡಿರ್; ಮಕ್ಕಳಿರ್, ತೊಟ್ಟಿರ್; ನೀವಿರ್. Kannada has another rational plural suffix *dir* with nothing corresponding to it in Tamil. ಅವಂದಿರ್ ಅವಳ್ಳಿರ್; ಮಗಂದಿರ್ ಮಗಳ್ಳಿರ್; ಅಣ್ಣಂದಿರ್ ಅಕ್ಕಂದಿರ್. The plural suffix corresponding to the Tamil-Kannada *kal* or *gal* is *lu* in Telugu and *kuḷu* in Tulu. ರಾಮುಲು, ಕಪ್ಪಲು, ಪೆದ್ದಲು; ಗುರುಕುಳು, ನೀಕುಳು (compare ನೀಂಗಳ್ in Tamil and Kannada). The Tamil-Kannada *var* is generally represented by *vuru* or *guru* in Telugu. ಇರುವರ್ ಇವರ್ ಇರುವುರು or ಇರುಗುರು (also ಇದ್ದು); ನಾಲ್ವರ್ ನಾಲ್ವರ್ ನಲುವುರು or ನಲುಗುರು. The double plural *ar-gal* occurs in all these

languages : ಅವರ್ಕಳ್ ಅವರ್ಗ್ ವಾರಲು. The termination of the neuter plural in Tamil and Kannaḍa is *gal* and in Telugu *lu*. ಮರಂಗಳ್ ಮರಂಗಳ್ ಮೂಕುಲು ; ಉಕಿರ್ಕಳ್ ಉಗುರ್ಗಳ್ ಗೋರುಲು ; ಕೊಂಡಲು, ಅಪುಲು. *Avai*, another suffix in Tamil, appears as *avu* and *uvu* in Kannaḍa, as *avi* in Telugu and as *ava* in Malayālam. ಪೆರಿಯಪ್ಪೆ ಪಿರಿಯಪು ಪೆದ್ದವಿ ಪೆರಿಯವ ; ವಂದವೈ ಬಂದುಪು ವಚ್ಚಿನವಿ ವಂದವ. The suffixes *an*, *al* and *ar* are no doubt shortened forms of the pronouns *avan*, *aval* and *avar*. In Kūī *āñu* means a man and *ālu* a woman. In Telugu, too, *ālu* means a woman. Compare *āñu* with *ān*, a male, and *āl* with *ālu*, a woman. We may thus explain perhaps the longer forms *ān* and *āl*.

As stated before, unlike the Indo-European languages which use two different sets of terminations for the singular and the plural, the Dravidian languages use the same set of case signs for both numbers, the case ending being added to the base in the singular and to the sign of plurality in the plural.

The nominative. In Tamil and Kannaḍa the crude base itself, without any addition or alteration, becomes, in very many cases, the nominative singular : ಪುರ್ ಪುರ್ ; ಮನ್ನೆ ಮನೆ ; ಪುಲ ಪುಲ ; ಆಳ್ ಆಳ್ ; ಪೆಣ್ ಪೆಣ್. The same is the case, to some extent, in Telugu also, though words of this language do not, as a rule, end in consonants : ಚವಿ, ಮಾಟ, ನಿಪ್ಪ, ತಿನ್ನೆ. But, masculine bases ending in *a* take *an* as their nominative termination in Tamil and Kannaḍa, and *du* in Telugu. As stated before, *an* becomes *am* in Kannaḍa : ದೇವ್ ದೇವಂ ದೇವುಡು ; ಶುಪ್ಪ್ ಸುಬ್ಬಂ ಸುಬ್ಬುಡು. Neuter bases in *a* take *am* or *an* as their termination in both Tamil and Kannaḍa, the remark about the masculine suffix *an* in Kannaḍa applying to the neuter suffix also. ಕೂಳಂ ಕೂಳ, ಕೊಳಂ. Though *n* of the Kannaḍa masculine suffix is changed into *bindu* when final, it resumes its former shape when followed by a vowel, but this is optional with the neuter suffix : ದೇವಂ ; but ದೇವಂ + ಅಂ = ದೇವನಂ ; ಕೊಳಂ ; but ಕೊಳಂ + ಅಂ = ಕೊಳಮಂ or ಕೊಳನಂ. In Telugu



neuter bases in *a* generally take *nu* as their nominative termination : ಗುಣಮು, ಅನ್ನಮು.

The inflexional increments used in Tamil and Kannada are almost the same, as is also the mode of forming the oblique bases. The following table shows the similarity in the formation of the inflexional base of the oblique cases in the two languages :—

	Base.	Inflexional increment.	Oblique base.	Examples.
(1) Tamil	ಮರಂ	ಅತ್ತು attu	ಮರತ್ತು	ಮರತ್ತುಳ್
Kannada	ಮರಂ	ಅದ್ ad	ಮರದ್	ಮರದೊಳ್
(2) Tamil	ಗರು	ಇನ್ in	ಗುರುವಿನ್	ಗುರುವಿನುಳ್
Kannada	ಗುರು	ಇನ್ in	ಗುರುವಿನ್	ಗುರುವಿನೊಳ್
(3) Tamil	ಪಲ	ಅಟ್ಟು aṭṭru	ಪಲವಟು	ಪಲವಟ್ಟುಳ್
Kannada	ಪಲ	ಅಱ್ ar	ವಲವಱ್	ಪಲವಱೊಳ್

In (1) and (3) the Tamil inflexional increment is nothing but the Kannada increment with its final doubled and *u* added. In (2) the increment is the same in both the languages, and its use is likewise optional in both. There are some inflexional increments in Telugu also which are known as *aupavibhaktikas*. These are *ti, ti, i*. ಅನ್ನಿಟಿ, ನಾಂಗುಚೇ from ನಾಂಗಲ; ನೇತಿಚೇ from ನೇಯ, ಚೇತಿಲೇ from ಚೇಯ; ಮ್ನಾನಿ from ಮ್ನಾನು, ಚೋಟಿ from ಚೋಟು. It will be seen that these do not exactly correspond to the ones in Tamil and Kannada. *I* has to be looked upon rather as a change of vowel due to vocalic harmony than as an inflexional increment. The Telugu increment corresponding to *in* of the other languages is *ni* or *na* : ದೀನಿಕಿ, ಗುರುವುನಕು. In Tamil and Telugu oblique bases formed by the addition of inflexional increments are capable of being used alone without case suffixes and bear the signification of genitives : ಮರತ್ತು, ಚೇತಿ, ವಾಕಿಟಿ. This is not, however, the case with Kannada.

The termination for the second case is *ai* in Tamil, *e* in Malayāḷam, *am* in Kannada and *nu* or *ni* in Telugu : ಎನ್ನೈ, ಎನ್ನೆ, The second case.

ಎನ್ನಂ, ನನ್ನು ದರಿಮ್ನು. *An* also occurs in Telugu as the suffix for the second case: ದೊರಣ್, ದೊರಣ್. In Modern Kannada *am* is shortened into *a* by the omission of the *bindu*. Kannada uses no inflexional increment in the second case after neuter bases in *a*, while Modern Tamil invariably uses *attu*: ದೇವನೈ, ದೇವನಂ ದೇವನ; ಮರತ್ತೈ, ಮರನಂ ಮರಮಂ. If we take *a* as the Kannada suffix, we may connect it with the *ai* of Tamil, since *ai* in Tamil is sometimes changed into *a* in Kannada, e.g., ಇರೈ ಇಲ್ಲ, ಹೈಂ ಪಂ.

In Kannada the same suffix *im* is used for both the instrumental and oblique cases. The third and fifth cases. There is, however, a so-called oblique suffix *attanin* which is merely the *im* of the instrumental with a demonstrative *attan* prefixed to it. The same is the case in Tamil also, in Old Tamil at any rate. Though the present instrumental terminations in Tamil are *āl* and *ān* to which there is no suffix answering in Kannada, still in Old Tamil occurs the suffix *in*, e.g., ನಿನ್ನಿರಂದ *ninnir-randa* (given by you), which is the same as the Kannada suffix. And the oblique suffix in Tamil is also *in* or *il*. The Telugu suffixes for the third case are *chēta* and its contraction *chē*, and for the fifth case *valana* and *kante*. The suffix for the social or conjunctive case in Tamil is *ōdu* or *udan*, in Kannada *ōdane* and in Telugu *tōda*, or *tō*. Some scholars connect the Telugu *tōda* with the Tamil word *tōla* which means a companion or friend and believe that the radical *t* has been lost in the Tamil and Kannada suffixes. Other suffixes for the third case in Kannada are *indam* and *inde*. In Badaga the suffix is *end* and in Toda *edd*.

The suffix for the fourth case is *ku* in Tamil, *ke* or *ge* in Kannada and *ki* or *ku* in Telugu. ಮನ್ನೈಕ್ಕು ಕುಳಕ್ಕು; ಮನೆಗೆ ಕೊಳಕ್ಕು; ತಟ್ಟಿಕಿ ತಲಕ್ಕು. The forms ಕುಳಕ್ಕು, ಕಯಕ್ಕು are found only in Old Tamil poetry, Modern Tamil invariably inserting the inflexional increment *attu* between the base and the suffix: ಕುಳತ್ತುಕ್ಕು, ಕಯತ್ತುಕ್ಕು. In Kannada no

inflexional increment is used. In Telugu grammars *ki* and *ku* are mentioned as genitive suffixes and *kai* as the dative suffix : ಧರ್ಮಮುಕ್ತೈ. *Ku* is also the suffix in Malayālam and *ikka* or *ikki* in the Behistun tablets. *ನಿನಕ್ಕು, ನೀ ಇಕ್ಕು, ನೀ ಇಕ್ಕಿ* (to thee).

The only suffix for the sixth case in Kannada is *a* :

The sixth case. ಪುಲಿಯು, ಮನೆಯು, ಅವನು, ಎನ್ನ, ತನ್ನ, ನಿನ್ನ, ಮರದ. This suffix also occurs as

the genitive of personal and reflexive pronouns in Tamil, Telugu and Tulu : ಎನ, ನಿನ, ತನ ; ತನ, ತಮ, ಮನ ; ಯನ, ನಿನ. As stated before, oblique bases are used as genitives in Tamil and Telugu, but not in Kannada : ಮರತ್ತು, ಜೇಡಿ. Another suffix common to Tamil and Kannada is *adu* : ಅವನದು ಅವನದು, ಎನದು ಎನ್ನದು, ನಿನದು, ನಿನ್ನದು, Kannada has besides the forms *atu* and *attu* to express the genitive : ಎನತು ಎನತ್ತು, ನಿನತು ನಿನತ್ತು, ತನತು ತನತ್ತು. Other suffixes given are *udaiya* in Tamil and *yokka, lō* and *lōpala* in Telugu : ಇರಾಮನುಡೈಯು, ಚೆಟ್ಟುಯೊಕ್ಕು, ಪಟಲೋ, ಕೊಂಡಲರೋಪಲ. *Lō* is, properly speaking, a locative suffix corresponding to the Tamil *ul* and the Kannada *ol*.

The suffixes for the seventh case in Kannada are *ol*

The seventh case. and *alli* which correspond to *ul*

and *il* of Tamil and *lō* and *andru* of Telugu : ಮನೆಯೊಳ್ ಮನೆಯೊಳ್ ಇಂಟರೋ ; ಮರದೊಳ್ ಮರ ತ್ತುಳ್ ಮ್ತುನಿರೋ ; ವಚನದಲ್ಲ ವಚನತ್ತಿರ್ ವಚನಮುನಂದು. Another suffix in Telugu is *na* : ತೂಫುನ.

The changes that nouns undergo in the vocative

The vocative case. case are more or less the same in Kannada, Tamil and Telugu.

ರಾಮ ರಾಮಾ ರಾಮನೇ, ದೇವ ದೇವಾ ದೇವನೇ, ರಾಮುಡ ರಾಮುಡಾ. In the plural *ira* is the suffix in Kannada, *ir* or *ir* in Tamil and *āra* in Telugu : ದೇವರ್ಕಳಿರ ನಂಟರಿರ, ತೆವ್ವಿರ್ ಶಾಸ್ತ್ರೀರ್, ರಾಮುರಾರ.

#### ADJECTIVES.

In the Dravidian languages adjectives are not compared. They are prefixed to substantives without any

declensional change. Dr. Caldwell's statement that Dravidian adjectives, properly so called, are nouns of quality or relation, which acquire the signification of adjectives merely by being prefixed to substantive nouns, does not appear to be quite correct. Tamil and Kannada, as well as Telugu to some extent, possess words which are as much entitled to be called adjectives as good, long, short, etc., are in English. ನನ್ನೈ ನನ್ನೈ (goodness) may properly be called a noun of quality; but as soon as the suffix *mai* or *me* (ness) is removed we have only an adjective of quality ನರ್ ನರ್ (good) left. The word that is prefixed to a substantive is not ನನ್ನೈ ನನ್ನೈ, which is supposed to acquire an adjectival meaning as soon as it is put before the noun, but the primitive ನರ್ ನರ್ from which ನನ್ನೈ ನನ್ನೈ is derived. Exception may indeed be taken to the so-called adjectives such as ಶುಭಮಾನ, ಪೆರುಮೈಯಾನ, ಪಣಮುಳ್ಳ; ಶುಭವಾದ, ಪಿರಿ ದಾದ, ಪಣಮುಳ್ಳ; ಶುಭಮಯನ, which are merely nouns with the relative participles *āna* (Kannada *āda* and Telugu *ayina*) and *ulla* affixed to them. These languages form a large number of adjectives in this way owing to the paucity of adjectives properly so called in them. But no manner of exception can be taken to the following list of adjectives of quality which, I think, have every right to be so called. It is noteworthy that all of them are common to both Tamil and Kannada.

Tamil	Kannada	Tamil	Kannada
ವೆಳ್	ಬೆಳ್	ಇಳ್	ಎಳ್
ತಣ್	ತಣ್	ಪುದು	ಪೊನ
ಪಶು	ಪನು	ಅರು	ಅರು
ನೇರ್	ನೇರ್	ನಲು	ನಲು
ಪೆರು	ಪೆರ್	ಶಿಲು	ಕಿಲು
ಕಡು	ಕಡು	ನಡು	ನಿಡು
ವರ್	ಬರ್	ಮೆರ್	ಮೆರ್
ಕುಲು	ಕುಲು	ಕೂರ್	ಕೂರ್
ಕೆಂ	ಕೆಂ	ಕರು	ಕರ್
ತೆಳ್	ತೆಳ್	ಇಣ್	ಇಣ್

Tamil	Kannada	Tamil	Kannada
ನರ್	ನರ್	ಪಟ	ಪಟ
ನುಣ್	ನುಣ್	ಕೊಡು	ಕುಡು
ವೆಂ	ವೆಂ	ನಡು	ನಡು
ವಟ್ಟಂ	ಬಟ್ಟ	ನಳಿ	ನಳಿ

Among Telugu adjectives may be mentioned నల్ల, ఎఱ్ఱ, పుల్ల, మంచి, బೆద్ద, ಚಿನ್ನ.

It is worthy of notice that the changes which many of these adjectives undergo in combination are almost the same in Tamil and Kannada.

(1) Some adjectives lengthen their initial letter before vowels, sometimes before consonants also :

ಕರು + ಉಡಲ್ = ಕಾರುಡಲ್, ಕರ್ + ಒಡಲ್ = ಕಾರೊಡಲ್ ;  
ಪೆರು + ಅಡವಿ = ಪೇರಡವಿ, ಪರ್ + ಅಡವಿ = ಪೇರಡವಿ. ಕರು +  
ಮುಗಿಲ್ = ಕಾರ್ಮುಗಿಲ್, ಕರ್ + ಮುಗಿಲ್ = ಕಾರ್ಮುಗಿಲ್.

(2) Some double their final letter before vowels:

ನೆಡು + ಇದಪ್ = ನೆಟ್ಟಿದಪ್, ನಿಡು + ಎನಪ್ = ನಿಟ್ಟಿನಪ್ ; ನಡು +  
ಅಡವಿ = ನಟ್ಟಡವಿ ; ಶಿಲು + ಇದಪ್ = ಶಿಟ್ಟಿದಪ್ ; ಕಿಲು + ಎನಪ್ = ಕಿಟ್ಟಿನಪ್.  
Compare Telugu నట్టి, నిట్టి, నిಟ್ಟ.

(3) The adjective ಪಶು ಪನು is sometimes altered into ಪೈಂ in Tamil; the same occurs in Kannada also, the phonetic equivalent of ಪೈಂ being ಪಂ. ಪಶುಂಬೊಳ್ ಪನುಂಬೊಳ್ ; ಪೈಂಬೊಳ್ ಪಂದಲೆ. This adjective also doubles its final letter before vowels : ಪಶು + ಇಲೈ = ಪಶ್ಶಿಲೈ, ಪನು + ಎಲೆ = ಪಶ್ಶಿಲೆ.

(4) Besides being used exactly as they stand in the above list, some of the adjectives take the suffix *iya* : ಪೆರಿಯ ಪಿರಿಯ, ಕರಿಯ ಕರಿಯ, ನೆಡಿಯ ನೆಡಿಯ, ಶಿಲಿಯ ಶಿಲಿಯ, ಇನಿಯ ಇನಿಯ, ಪಶಿಯ ಪಶಿಯ.

It was stated before that oblique bases in Tamil and Telugu bear the signification of genitives, and these are frequently used as adjectives. ನಾಟು, ನಾಟ. In Kannada, on the other hand, oblique bases are not used independently, and only genitives are used as adjectives : ನಾಡಿನ.

1 and 2.—The numerals corresponding to these in Tamil, Kannada and Telugu are respectively ಒಂದು, ಎರಡು, ಇರಂದು.

ಎರಡು ರೆಂಡು. The *u* of the Tamil ಒರು and ಇರು in combination is dropped in Kannada. ಒರು ಒರ್, ಒರುವ್ ಒರ್ವಂ, ಒರುವಳ್ ಒರ್ವಳ್, ಒರುಮೈ ಒರ್ಮೆ; ಇರು ಇರ್, ಇರುವರ್ ಇರ್ವರ್, ಇರುಮೈ ಇರ್ಮೆ. The corresponding Telugu forms for ಒರ್ ಒರ್ವಂ ಒರ್ವಳ್ are ಒಕ ಒಕಡು ಒಕತೆ; and for ಇರ್ವರ್, ಇರುವುರು ಇರುಗುರು or ಇದ್ದಲು. In both Tamil and Kannada the initial of ಒರು ಒರ್, ಇರು ಇರ್, is lengthened before vowels : ಒರು + ಉಡಲ್ = ಓರುಡಲ್, ಒರ್ + ಒಡಲ್ = ಓರೊಡಲ್; ಇರು + ಐಂದು = ಈರೈಂದು, ಇರ್ + ಐದು = ಈರೈದು. But in Tamil it is lengthened even before consonants. ಓರ್ನಾಟಿ ಓರ್ಯಾನೈ; ಈರ್ನಾಟಿ ಈರ್ಯಾನೈ. The form ಎರಡ್ for ಎರಡು occurring in combination, is peculiar to Kannada : ಎರಡ್ಕಾತು. Though ಒರು and ಒರ್ have *r*, the word ಒಟ್ಟು single, derived from the same root, has *r*.

3 and 5.—The words for these in the three languages mentioned above are respectively ಮೂನ್ದು ಮೂಲು ಮೂಡು; ಐಂದು, ಅಯ್ದು or ಐದು, ಅಯಿದು or ಏನು. They become ಮೂ or ಮು and ಐ or ಅಯ್ or ಏ in combination. ಮೂವುಲಕು ಮೂಲೋಕ್ಕಂ, ಮುಪ್ಪುಲಂ ಮುಪ್ಪೊಲರ್ ಮುಪ್ಪಾತಿಕ, ಮೂವರ್ ಮೂವರ್ ಮುಗ್ಗುರು, ಮುಪ್ಪದು ಮೂವತ್ತು ಮುಪ್ಪದಿ; ಐಮುಗ್ ಐಮೊಗಂ, ಐವಗೈ ಐವಡಿ ಏನಾಳ್ವು (5 days), ಐವರ್ ಐ (or ಅಯ್) ವರ್ ಅಯಿದುಗುರು or ಏಗುರು, ಐಂಬದು ಐ (or ಅಯ್) ವತ್ತು ಏಂಬದಿ.

The Kannada forms ಎರಡು and ಮೂಲು without nasals are supposed to be older than the Tamil ಇರಂಡು and ಮೂನ್ದು. Compare ಇರಟ್ಟು with ಎರಡು. But in the Telugu ರೆಂಡು the nasal occurs.

4.—The words for this numeral in the three languages are ನಾನ್ನ್ ನಾಲ್ವು ನಾಲುಗು. Though the present form of the Tamil numeral does not show the radical *l* as those of the other languages, the form ನಾಲ್ವು exactly like the Kannada one occurs in Old Tamil poetry : ಪಾರ್ ಪುರೈ ಪುರವಿ ನಾಲ್ವುಡ್ ಪೂಟ್ಟಿ (Porunarāṭṭruppaḍai). ನಾನ್ನ್ ಗ್ ನಾಲ್ವೊಗಂ ನಲುವಂಕಲು; ನಾಲ್ವರ್ ನಾಲ್ವರ್ ನಲುಗುರು; ನಾಲ್ವದು ನಾಲ್ವತ್ತು ನಲುವದಿ. In Tamil *l* is changed into *n* before *m* and into *r* before *p*.



6 and 7.—These numerals are the same in the three languages except for the substitution of *ḍ* for *ḷ* in the Telugu numeral for 7: ಅಟು ಅಟು ಅಟು; ಏಟು ಏಟು ಏಟು. The initials of these numerals are generally shortened in combination and their *u* is sometimes dropped. ಅಟುತಿಂಗಳ್ ಅಟುದಿಂಗಳ್, ಅಟುವರ್ ಅವರ್ ಅಟುಗುರು, ಅಟುಪದು ಅಟುವತ್ತು ಅಟುವದಿ; ಏಟುಡರ್ ಏಟುಡರ್, ಏಟುವರ್ ಏಟುರ್ ಏಟುಗುರು, ಏಟುಪದು ಏಟುವತ್ತು ಏಟುದಿ. *De* of the last word is derived from *ēḍu* by the consonant and initial vowel changing their places as is usual in Telugu.

8 and 9.—The numerals corresponding to these in the three languages are ಎಟು ಎಣ್ಣು ಎನಿಮಿದಿ; ಒನ್ನದು ಒಂಬತ್ತು ತೊಮ್ಮಿದಿ. The Kannada form clearly shows the radical *n*. The numeral nine is a compound word in all the Dravidian languages—ಒಂಬದು (Malayālam), ಒಯಿಂಬದು (Kodagu), ಒರ್ವ್ವು (Tulu). It will be seen that the Telugu form ತೊಮ್ಮಿದಿ differs from all the others. Its first part is the same as that of the Kannada ತೊಂಬತ್ತು (90); but *tom* of ತೊಮ್ಮಿದಿ is supposed to be connected with *tol* (before) and *tom* of ತೊಂಬತ್ತು with *tonḍu* (nine). ತೊಮ್ಮಿದಿ is thus explained as the number before ten and ತೊಂಬತ್ತು as nine times ten. The Tamil word for 90 is ತೊಣ್ಣೂಟು and for 900 ತೊಳ್ಳಾಯಿರಂ. The first part of these words, *tol*, is also supposed to mean before, and the words are explained as the last ten before a hundred and the last hundred before a thousand. This is indeed ingenious, but not convincing. The Telugu numeral ಎನಿಮಿದಿ also looks like a compound word. It has to be stated here that instead of the usual suffix *guru*, the Telugu words denoting eight and nine persons have the new suffix *andru*. This suffix also occurs in words denoting 18, 19, 20, 30, 40, 50, 60, 70, 80 and 90 persons: ಎಣ್ಣೆಶೈ ಎಣ್ಣೆಶೆ, ಎಣ್ಣರ್ ಎಣ್ಣರ್ ಎನಮಂಡು, ಎಣ್ಣದು ಎಣ್ಣತ್ತು ಎನುಬದಿ. In Tamil *t* following *n* is changed into *ḍ*. ಒನ್ನದಿನ್ನರ್ ಒಂಬದಿಂಬರ್ ತೊಮ್ಮಂಡು, ತೊಣ್ಣೂಟು ತೊಂಬತ್ತು ತೊಂಬದಿ.

10.—This numeral in the three languages is ಪತ್ತು

ಪತ್ತು ಪದಿ. ಪದಿನ್ನರ್ ಪದಿಂಬರ್ ಪದುಗುರು or ಪದುಗುಂಡು. In combination the Tamil numeral becomes ಪದು at the end of words: ಇರುಪದು ಇರ್ಪತ್ತು ಇರುವದಿ, ನಾಲ್ಕು ನಾಲ್ಪತ್ತು ನಲುವದಿ, ಎಣ್ಣು ಎಣ್ಣತ್ತು ಎನುಬದಿ. The numeral becomes ಪದಿ ಪದಿ ಪದು in the three languages before the numbers 3 to 8, but the final *n* is dropped in Kannada and Telugu before 3 and 4. It is dropped before 3 even in Modern Tamil: ಪದಿಮೂನ್ರು ಪದಿಮೂಣು ಪದುಮೂಡು, ಪದಿನಾನ್ರು ಪದಿನಾಲ್ಕು ಪದುನಾಲುಗು, ಪದಿನ್ನೆಂದು ಪದಿನ್ನೆದು ಪದುನಯಿದು or ಪದುನೆನು, ಪದಿ ನಾಲು ಪದಿನಾಲು ಪದುನಾಲು, ಪದಿನೇಲು ಪದಿನೇಲು ಪದುನೆಡು, ಪದಿನೆಟ್ಟು ಪದಿನೆಣ್ಣು ಪದುನೆನಿಮಿದಿ. In Tamil final *n* not preceded by a single short vowel is elided when followed by another *n*. Accordingly ಪದಿ + ನಾನ್ರು becomes ಪದಿನಾನ್ರು. The same is the case with the corresponding Kannada and Telugu words, though the Tamil rule is not known to Kannada and Telugu grammarians. This Tamil rule clearly explains the word ಜೇನೆಯ್ which is another form of the Tamil ತೇನೆಯ್. The numeral undergoes no change in Kannada and Tamil before 9 but becomes *pan* or *pam* in Telugu. ಪತ್ತೊನ್ನದು ಪತ್ತೊಂಬತ್ತು ಪಂದೊಮ್ಮಿದಿ. It becomes *pan* before 2 in the three languages, but before 1 it becomes *padin* in Tamil, *pan* in Kannada and *padun* in Telugu: ಪನ್ನಿರಂಡು ಪನ್ನೆರಡು ಪಂದ್ರೆಂಡು; ಪದಿನೊನ್ರು ಪನ್ನೊಂದು ಪದುನೊಕಟಿ.

The three languages have the word *nūru* for a hundred, Telugu having also an additional word ವಂದ. There is further an indigenous word ವೇಯ in Telugu for a thousand, the other languages having to borrow a word from Sanskrit. The word in Tamil is ಅಯಿರಂ and in Kannada ಸಾಸಿರಂ, both derived from the Sanskrit ಸಹಸ್ರ. The Tamil numerals for 90 and 900 greatly differ from the corresponding ones of the other two languages: ತೊಣ್ಣುಲು ತೊಂಬತ್ತು ತೊಂಬದಿ; ತೊಕ್ಕಾಯಿರಂ ಒಂಬಯ್ಯುಲು ತೊಮ್ಮನುಲು. The suffixes for ordinals in the three languages are respectively ಅಂ ಅನೆಯ ಅವ; ಇರಂಡಾಂ ಎರಡನೆಯ ರೆಂಡವ,

ಐಂದಾಂ ಐದನೆಯ ಅಯಿದವ. ಅಂ stands for ಅಗುಂ from ಅಗು to become. Similarly *ava* stands for ಅಗ from ಅಗು to become. The origin of the Kannada suffix ಅನೆಯ is not, however, clear. I venture to think that it is identical with the Tamil particle of similarity ಅನೈಯ and means *like* or *of the measure of*.

#### PRONOUNS.

Philologists are of opinion that pronouns afford the most conclusive evidence of the relationship between languages, as, of all words in a language, they appear to possess the greatest amount of tenacity and permanence. In the Indo-European languages the base of the oblique cases of pronouns is different from the base of the nominative. Such is not the case in the Dravidian languages. The table in the next page exhibits the general similarity of the personal and reflexive pronouns in Tamil, Kannada and Telugu.

	Nominative	Oblique base	Dative	Genitive with <i>a</i>	Genitive with <i>adu</i> or <i>adi</i>
First Person Singular— Tamil Kannada Telugu	ಯಾಕ್ ನಾಕ್ ಈ ನಾಕ್ ಏನು ನೇನು	ಎಕ್ ನಕ್ ಎಕ್ ನಾ ನಾ	ಎನಕ್ಕು ನಮಗೆ ನಾಕು	ಎನ ನ್ನಾ ಎನ್ನಾ (ನಾ)	ಎನದು ಎನ್ನದು ಎನ್ನದು ಎನ್ನದು ನಾದಿ
First Person Plural— Tamil Kannada Telugu	ಯಾಂ ನಾಂ ಈ ನಾಂ ಏಮು ಮೇಮು ನೇಮು	ಎಂ ನಂ ಎಂ ನಂ ಮಾ	ಎಮಕ್ಕು ನಮಕ್ಕು ಎಮಗೆ ನಮಗೆ ಮಾಕು	ಎಮ ನಮ ಎಮ್ಮ ನಮ್ಮ (ಮಾ)	ಎಮದು ನಮದು ಎಮ್ಮದು ಎಮ್ಮತು ನಮ್ಮದು ಮಾದಿ
Second Person Singular— Tamil Kannada Telugu	ನೀ ನೀ ನೀತು ಈತು	ನೀ ಉ ನೀ ನೀ	ನಿನಕ್ಕು ಉನಕ್ಕು ನಿಗೆ ನೀಕು	ನಿನ ಉನ ನಿನ್ನಾ (ನೀ)	ನಿನದು ಉನದು ನಿನ್ನದು ನಿನ್ನತು ನೀದಿ
Second Person Plural— Tamil Kannada Telugu	ನೀಯರ್ ನೀವಿರ್ ನೀರ್ ನಿಂ ಮೀರು ಈರು	ನುಂ ಉಂ ನಿಂ ಮೀ	ನುಮಕ್ಕು ಉಮಕ್ಕು ನಿಮಗೆ ಮಾಕು	ನುಮ ಉಮ ನಿಮ್ಮ (ಮೀ)	ನುಮದು ಉಮದು ನಿಮ್ಮದು ನಿಮತು ಮೀದಿ
Reflexive Singular— Tamil Kannada Telugu	ತಾಕ್ ತಾಕ್ ತಾನು	ತಕ್ ತಕ್ ತನ್	ತನಕ್ಕು ತನಗೆ ತನಕು	ತನ ತನ್ನಾ ತನ್ನಾ	ತನದು ತನತು ತನ್ನದು ತನ್ನತು ತನದಿ
Reflexive Plural— Tamil Kannada Telugu	ತಾಂ ತಾಂ ತಾಮು ತಮರು	ತಂ ತಂ ತಮ	ತಮಕ್ಕು ತಮಗೆ ತಮಕು	ತಮ ತಮ್ಮ ತಮ	ತಮದು ತಮತು ತಮ್ಮದು ತಮ್ಮತು ತಮದಿ

The forms of the reflexive pronoun are nearly the same in all the three languages. But there are some points of difference with regard to the personal pronouns of the first and second persons which have to be noticed. The initial *y* of the Tamil pronoun of the first person does not occur in Kannada and Telugu. There are, besides, several words in Tamil which are supposed to be more correct with an initial *y* than without it, *e.g.*, ಯಾನ್ಮೈ, ಯಾಕ್ಕೈ, ಯಾಂಡು, ಯಾರ್. The Kannada pronoun of the second person singular has retained the radical *n* which the Tamil pronoun has lost. Although the plurals of the Tamil pronoun of the second person end in *r*, in the Modern Tamil plural ನೀಂಗಳ್, we clearly see the form *nīm* which is identical with the Kannada plural. Tamil shares with Brāhūi the peculiarity of using *num* for the second person plural, though Kannada and Malayalam use *nim*. The doubling of *n* and *m* seen in some of the Kannada genitives also occurs in Modern Tamil. The form *ninna* occurs in Old Tamil poetry, *e.g.*, ನಿನ್ನ ತನ್ನೈಯಿನ್ನದನ್ನು (*Tiruchchandaviruttam*, verse 5). The change of *ā* into *ē* in the Telugu pronouns of the first person has to be regarded as dialectic. Another peculiarity in Telugu is that while the other languages shorten the vowel of the nominative in the oblique cases of the pronouns of the first and second persons, it retains the long vowel of the nominative in all oblique cases except the second, *e.g.*, నాకు, మాజేత, ನೀకు, మీవలన; నిన్ను, మిమ్ము, నన్ను, మమ్ము. A third peculiarity is the substitution of *m* for the initial *n* of the pronouns in the plural. A fourth is the absence of genitive pronouns ending in *a* except తన, తమ and మన, and the substitution for them of the oblique bases of the pronouns.

In all the languages *tan* is used as an honorific pronoun of the second person. The double plurals ನೀంಗಳ್ ನೀంಗಳ್ మీరలు also occur in them.

In most of the Dravidian languages, are used, as stated before, two different forms of the plural of the

personal pronoun of the first person, the one inclusive and the other exclusive of the person addressed—

		<i>Tamil</i>	<i>Malayālam</i>	<i>Telugu</i>
Inclusive	....	ಯಾಂ, ನಾಂ	ನಾಂ	ಮನಮು
Exclusive	....	ನಾಂಗಳ್	ಇ಼ನಾಂಗಳ್	ಏಮು, ಮೇಮು.

Some scholars doubt whether this peculiarity is an originally Dravidian feature, not only because it is not found in Gōṇḍi, Brāhūi and several minor dialects of the Dravidian group, but also because it is found in languages outside that group such as Mahrāthi, Gujarāti, etc. : Gujarāti—*ame* (we), *āpane* (we and you) ; Mahrāthi—*āmhī* (we), *āpan* (we and you). It is believed that Kannaḍa, too, does not possess this feature. I think Kannaḍa does possess two forms of the plural of the personal pronoun of the first person just like its sister languages of Southern India. And this not only in the Old language but also in the Modern.

		<i>Old Kannaḍa</i>	<i>Modern Kannaḍa</i>
Inclusive	....	ಅಂ	ನಾವು
Exclusive	....	ನಾಂ	ನಾವುಗಳು

In the instance ಇನಿಬರುಮೊಂದಾಗಿ ಕಾದುವಂ ಫಲುಣನೊಳ್, given under sūtra 229 of the *Śabdamanidarpaṇa*, the subject ಅಂ, which is understood, is clearly inclusive. It is very rarely that ನಾಂ is used in Old Kannaḍa.

Another table showing the similarity of the demonstrative and interrogative pronouns and adjectives in the three languages is given in the following pages.



	Remote Demonstrative				Proximate Demonstrative		
	Tamil	Kannada	Telugu		Tamil	Kannada	Telugu
Masculine singular ...	ಅವ್	ಅವ್	ವಾ:ಡು		ಇವ್	ಇವ್	ವೀ:ಡು
Feminine singular ...	ಅವಳು	ಅವಳು	ಅದಿ		ಇವಳು	ಇವಳು	ಇದಿ
Neuter singular ...	ಅದು	ಅದು	ಅದಿ		ಇದು	ಇದು	ಇದಿ
Episcene plural ...	ಅವರು	ಅವರು	ವಾರು		ಇವರು	ಇವರು	ವೀರು
Neuter plural ...	ಅವೆ	ಅವು	ಅವಿ		ಇವೆ	ಇವು	ಇವಿ
Adjectives ...	ಅ	ಅ	ಅ		ಇ	ಇ	ಈ
Adverbs ...	ಅಲ್ಲಿ	ಅಂದು	(ಅಷ್ಟು)		ಇಲ್ಲಿ	ಇಂದು	(ಇಷ್ಟು)

	Intermediate Demonstrative			Interrogative			
	Tamil	Kannada	Telugu	Tamil	Old Kannada	Modern Kannada	Telugu
Masculine singular ...	ಉಪ್ಪೆ	ಉಪ್ಪೆ		ಯಾವ್ ಒಪ್ಪೆ	ಅಪ್ಪ	ಯಾವಂ	ಎಪ್ಪೆಡು ಒಪ್ಪೆಡು
Feminine singular ...	ಉಪ್ಪಳ್	ಉಪ್ಪಳ್		ಯಾವಳ್ ಒಪ್ಪಳ್	ಅಪ್ಪಳ್	ಯಾವಳ್	ಎಪ್ಪೆತೆ ಎಪ್ಪರಿತೆ
Neuter singular ...	ಉದು	ಉದು		ಯಾದು ಎದು	ಅಪ್ಪದು	ಯಾವುದು	ಎದಿ ಒದಿ
Epiceue plural ...	ಉಪರ್	ಉಪರ್		ಯಾವರ್ ಯಾರ್ ಎಪರ್	ಅರ್	ಯಾರ್	ಎಪರು
Neuter plural ...	ಉಪೈ	ಉಪು		ಯಾವೈ ಎಪೈ	ಅಪ್ಪು	ಯಾವುಪು	ಎಪಿ
Adjectives ...	ಉ	ಉ		ಯಾ ಎ	ಅಪ	ಯಾಪ	ಪಿ
Adverbs ...	ಉನ್ನೆ	ಉಂದು		ಏನ್ನೆ	ಎಂದು	ಎಂದು ಯಾವಾಗ	(ಎಪ್ಪುಡು)

The Tamil and Kannaḍa forms are almost identical. The initial *y* of the Tamil interrogatives is dropped in Old Kannaḍa but retained in Modern Kannaḍa. We thus see that the Tamil forms with *yā* are colloquial in Kannaḍa and the Kannaḍa *ār* is colloquial in Tamil. The Kannaḍa and Telugu demonstrative adjectives are merely lengthened forms of the Tamil ones. The forms ಪಾರು, ವೀರಡು, etc., in Telugu are, as stated before, the result of the peculiar dialectic changes in that language. Another peculiarity, also mentioned before, is the absence of the feminine singular in Telugu and the use of the neuter singular instead. Telugu does not possess intermediate demonstratives. Its interrogatives closely resemble the Tamil ones beginning with *e*. The Telugu adverbs ಅಂದು, ಇಂದು, ಎಂದು, though identical in form with the Kannaḍa ones given in the table, do not convey the same meaning: they are adverbs of place, and not of time as in Kannaḍa. The adverbs in Telugu corresponding to the Kannaḍa ones are *appuḍu* (*appoluḍu*, *āpoluḍu*), *ippuḍu* and *eppuḍu*. One more set of words may be added which is similar in the three languages, only there is an interchange of *t* and *n* in the Tamil words:

	<i>Remote Demonstrative.</i>	<i>Proximate Demonstrative.</i>	<i>Interrogative.</i>
Tamil	.... ಅತ್ತನ್ನೈ	ಇತ್ತನ್ನೈ	ಎತ್ತನ್ನೈ
Kannaḍa	.... ಅನಿತು	ಇನಿತು	ಎನಿತು
Telugu	.... ಅಂತ	ಇಂತ	ಎಂತ

Kannaḍa and Telugu have also honorific demonstrative pronouns, both masculine and feminine, which are not found in Tamil:

	<i>Remote.</i>	<i>Proximate.</i>
Kannaḍa—		
Masculine ....	ಅತಂ	ಈತಂ
Feminine ....	ಅಕೆ	ಈಕೆ
Telugu—		
Masculine ....	ಅತನು ಅತಂಡು ಅತಂಡು	ಈತನು ಇತಂಡು ಈತಂಡು
Feminine ....	ಅಕೆ ಅಮೆ ಅಪೆ	ಈಕೆ ಈಮೆ ಈಪೆ

Kannada has no forms corresponding to the Telugu *āme*, *āpe*, *īme*, *īpe*, nor has Telugu any forms corresponding to the Kannada intermediate ಊತಂ and ಊಕೆ. Telugu has, however, the interrogative honorific forms ಎತೆ ದು ಎತೆ ದು, ಎಕೆ ಎಮೆ ಎಕೆ which are not found in Kannada. The honorific pronouns in Kannada have plurals ಆತಂಗರ್ ಆಕೆಯರ್, but not those in Telugu. The Kannada forms corresponding to the Telugu ಅಂದಳು, ಇಂದಳು, ಎಂದಳು and ಕೊಂದಳು are respectively ಅನಿಬರ್, ಇನಿಬರ್, ಎನಿಬರ್ and ಕೆಲಬರ್. It may be added here that *udu* the intermediate demonstrative in Kannada and Tamil, is the proximate demonstrative in Tulu.

#### VERBS.

A comparison of Tamil and Kannada under this head reveals remarkable coincidences, as will appear in the sequel, amounting, in most cases, to perfect identity, in the roots, personal terminations and the formation of the different tenses, moods and participles. The same cannot be said of the Telugu language. Of the four cultivated languages of the South, the farthest removed from each other are Tamil and Telugu. It is true that many of the verbal roots and forms in both these languages are similar, but they are often so disguised by inflexional and dialectic changes peculiar to Telugu that the similarity does not easily reveal itself. Unlike the roots in Tamil and Kannada, many of which end in consonants, the roots in Telugu always end in vowels. The number of Telugu roots which are identical with those in Tamil are far fewer in number than those in Kannada. The same remark applies to roots in Telugu whose identity is disguised by dialectic and other changes. I give in the following pages lists of roots which are common either to all the three languages some or to only any two of them, as well as of those which have undergone change in one or two languages :—

*Roots common to Tamil, Kannada and Telugu.*

ಕಟ್ಟು, ತಿಟ್ಟು, ಕಿಟ್ಟು, ಮೆಟ್ಟು, ಅಡು, ಕೂಡು, ಕೊಂಡಾಡು, ಒಪ್ಪು, ತಪ್ಪು, ಆಟು, ನಡ್ಕು, ಮೀಟು, ಅಂಜು, ತಗು, ತಟ್ಟು, ತುಮ್ಮು, ನಗು, ಪೊಂಗು, ಪಾಡು, ಮಾಟು, ಪಡು.

*Tamil roots and those corresponding to them in Kannada and Telugu that have undergone change.*

ನಡ	ನಡೆ	ನಡೆಚು	ತುಡೈ	ತೊಡೆ	ತೊಡಯು
ಪರೈ	ಬರೆ	ವಾಯು	ಅಲೈ	ಅರೆ	ಅಲಯು
ನಡುಂಗು	ನಡುಗು	ನಡುಂಕು	ಇಟು	ಎಡೆ	ಈಡುಡು
ಶೇರ್	ಸೇರ್	ಚೇರು	ಮುಕ್ಕೈ	ಮೊಳೆ	ಮೊಲಡು
ತರು	ತರ್	ತೆಚ್ಚು	ತೆಳಿ	ತಿಳಿ	ತೆಲಿಯು
ಎಟು	ಎಪ್	ಲೇಚು	ತಿಟ	ತೆಪ್	ತೆಟು
ಆರಾಯ್	ಆರಯ್	ಆರಯು	ಎಣ್	ಎಣಿಸು	ಎಂಚು
ಶೆಯ್	ಕೆಯ್	ಚೇಯು	ಅಟು	ಅಪ್	ಎಡು
ಅಟುಂದು	ಅಟ್ಟು	ಅದ್ದು	ಪುಗಪ್	ಪೊಗಪ್	ಪೊಗಡು
ಶಿಡಟು	ಕೆಡಟು	ಚೆಡಟು	ಶಾ	ಸಾ	ಚೆಚ್ಚು
ಮಟ	ಮಪ್	ಮಟು			

*Roots common to Tamil and Telugu.*

ತಡವು	ತಡವು	ತಿಣ್	ತಿನು
ತೂಟು	ತೂರು	ಅಲರ್	ಅಲರು
ಅನುಪ್ಪು	ಅನುಪು	ಕಣ್	ಕನು
ಶೆಪ್ಪು	ಚೆಪ್ಪು	ತೇಯ್	ತೇಯು
ತೋಂಡು	ತೋಂಡು	ಪೋರ್	ಪೋಲು
ಅಲಮರು	ಅಲಮಗು	ಮಡಿ	ಮಡಿಯು
ಮೇಯ್	ಮೇಯು*	ಪಾಟು	ಪಾಟು

*Tamil roots and those corresponding to them in Telugu that have undergone change.*

ನಂಬು	ನಮ್ಮು	ಆಗು	ಅಗು
ಅಮೈ	ಅಮಯು	ಕೊಳ್	ಕೊನು
ತಿರುಪ್ಪು	ತ್ರಿಪ್ಪು	ತುಳ್ಳು	ತುಳ್ಳು
ಈ	ಇಚ್ಚು	ಅಲರ್	ಅಡಲು
ಕಾಣ್	ಕನು	ಪಟ್ಟು	ಪಟ್ಟು
ನಿಟ್ಟುಪೇಟು	ನೆಟವೇಟು	ತಣಿ	ತನಿಯು
ಮುಲುಗು	ಮುನುಗು		

*Roots common to Kannada and Telugu.*

ಪುಟ್ಟು, ತಿರುಗು, ದೂಟು, ಪಿಂಡು, ನೆಟಪು, ಅಡುಕು, ಅಲ್ಲಾಡು, ಮುದ್ದಾಡು,

\* In this and the succeeding Telugu roots the final 'u' is merely enunciative. As stated before, Telugu roots invariably end in a vowel.

ದಾಂಟು, ಅಂಟು, ಕಡಂಗು, ತೂಟು, ತೊಲಂಗು, ಅಜಜು, ತೊಡಗು, ನಂಜು,\*  
ನಾನು, ದಕ್ಕು, ದುಮುಕು, ದೊರಕು, ಅದುಮು, ತೆರಾಡು, ನುಲುಚು, ತಗುಲು,  
ದೋರಚು, ತೋರಚು, ಮರಲು, ಕರಂಗು.

*Kannaḍa roots and those corresponding to them in Telugu  
that have undergone change.*

ಎಣ್	ಅನು	ಆಳು	ಆಲುಕು
ಮಾಣ್	ಮಾನು	ತಿರು	ದಿದು
ಕೊಯ್	ಕೋಯು	ನೆಗಲ್	ನೆಗಡು
ತೆರಳ್	ತೆರಲು	ಅಜ್ಜ	ಎಜುಗು
ತಪ್ಪು	ತಪ್ಪು	ರುಳಪಿನು	ರುಳಪಿಂಚು
ನಿಳ್ಳು	ನಿಲ್ಲುಗು	ಈನು	ಈದು
ದಬ್ಬು	ದೊಬ್ಬು	ನುಡಿ	ನುಡುಗು
ಬಿಲರ್	ಬಿಡಲು	ಅಪ್ಪಳಿನು	ಅಪ್ಪಳಿಂಡು
ಅದಿರ್	ಅದರು	ನೂಂಕು	ನೂಕು
ಪೋಣ್	ಪೊನು	ತಟುಂಬು	ತಟುಮು
ಅಳವಡು	ಅಲವಡು	ತಳರ್	ತಲರು
ನಿರ್	ನಿಲುಚು	ತಿಣುಕು	ತಿನುಕು

*Roots common to Tamil and Kannaḍa.*

ಈ, ಕಾ, ಕೋ, ನೋ, ಪೋ, ಕಾಣ್, ಕಾಯ್, ಉಣ್, ನಿರ್, ಕರ್, ಮೆಲ್, ಕೊಲ್,  
ಕನರ್, ಕಯಲ್, ಕೊಳ್, ತಾಳ್, ಅಳ್, ಅಯ್, ಪಯ್, ಉಯ್, ಏಯ್, ನಾಯ್, ಕಾಯ್,  
ಪೊಯ್, ಅಯ್, ಕುಯ್, ಪಯ್, ತಯ್, ಅಯಲ್, ಅಗು, ಪುಗು, ಮಿಗು, ಕಡಂಗು, ತಾಂಗು,  
ಪಿಡಿ, ಕುಡಿ, ಮುಡಿ, ಕಡಿ, ಮಡಿ, ಜಡಿ, ಅಡು, ಉಡು, ನಡು, ಇಡು, ಓಡು, ಕುಂಬಡು,  
ಮಾಡು, ಕುತ್ತು, ಊಡು, ಮೋಡು, ಓಡು, ನಡು, ಮುತ್ತು, ಮುನಿ, ಕುನಿ, ಮುಳಿ, ತಿಣ್,  
ಎಣ್, ಈಣ್, ತಳ್, ತಣ್, ನಂಬು, ಅರಿ, ಅಮರ್, ನಿಮಿರ್, ಅಡರ್, ತೊಡರ್, ಅದಿರ್,  
ಉದಿರ್, ಅಲರ್, ಮಲರ್, ತಳರ್, ಕುಳರ್, ನೂಲ್, ನಯ್, ಕೊಯ್, ಪಾಯ್, ನೀಳ್,  
ಕಟಿ, ಪಟಿ, ಇಟಿ, ಅಟಿ, ಮುಟುಗು, ಪೋಯ್, ಉಳ್, ಕಳ್, ಉರುಳ್, ಪೋಲ್, ಆರ್,  
ಪಾರ್, ಪೋರ್, ನಕ್ಕು, ಮುಕ್ಕು, ತಾಯ್, ಮುಯ್, ಮುಯ್, ತೂಟು, ತೇಟು, ಪಿಟಿ,  
ತುತ್ತು, ತಂಗು, ಪನಿ, ಉಗು, ಎಟ್ಟು, ಪತ್ತು, ಕರಿ, ಮಾಣ್, ಪೋಣ್, ಅಲಂಬು, ಮುಂದು,  
ಕುಟಿ, ಕಪಿ, ನುಂಗು, ಕೇಳ್, ಅಗಲ್.

*Tamil roots and those corresponding to them in Kannaḍa  
that have undergone change.*

ಎರಿ	ಬರಿ	ವೀಯ್	ಬೀಯ್
ವೀ	ಬೀ	ವೇಳ್	ಬೇಳ್
ವೇ	ಬೇ	ವಿಡು	ಬಿಡು
ವಿಡಿರ್	ಬಿಡಿರ್	ವಾಡು	ಬಾಡು
ವರು	ಬರ್	ವಿಕ್ಕು	ಬಿಕ್ಕು
ವಿತ್ತು	ಬಿತ್ತು	ತೋಯ್	ತೋ
ವೈ	ಬಯ್	ಪುಯ್ಯುಗು	ಪುಯ್ಯು
ವೀಶು	ಬೀನು	ಅರೈ	ಅರೆ
ವಿಜೈ	ಬೆಜು	ಊಳ್ಳಿಯಿಡು	ಊಳ್ಳಿಡು
ವಟಿ	ಬಟಿ	ಪಿಣೈ	ಪಣಿ
ವಾಲ್	ಬಾಲ್	ನಿರಪ್ಪು	ನೆರಪ್ಪು

\* This and the following in Modern Kannaḍa.



ನಶಿ  
 ಕಟ  
 ಕೆಡು  
 ಕೊಡು  
 ಶುಡು  
 ಶುಡ್ಡು  
 ಶೂರಿ  
 ಪೂರಿ  
 ಕೊದಿ  
 ಶುರುಳ್  
 ವಟ್ಟು  
 ವಿಳ್ಳು  
 ವೇಡು  
 ತೋಡು  
 ಉಣಂಗು  
 ನಿರ  
 ಪದುಂಗು  
 ಪೊರುಂದು  
 ಒಲುಗು  
 ಮೇಯ್  
 ಪರಂಬು  
 ಪೆರುಗು  
 ಪುಣಪ್ಪಡು  
 ಪಡ್ಡು  
 ನಾರ್  
 ಉರೈ  
 ನನ್ನೆ  
 ನಿನ್ನೆ  
 ಮಾರೈ  
 ಪದೈ  
 ನಿಟ್ಟು  
 ಕಳ್ಳಿ  
 ನುಡೈ  
 ಶಮೈ  
 ಕಡೈ  
 ತಡೈ  
 ಪುಡೈ  
 ಉಡೈ  
 ಇರ  
 ಕಿಡ  
 ಪುರ  
 ತುಡಿ  
 ಅಳ  
 ಮುಗ  
 ಕರ  
 ವಿಳಂಗು  
 ಶುರ

ನಸಿ  
 ಕಟ  
 ಕಿಡು  
 ಕುಡು  
 ನುಡು  
 ನುತ್ತು  
 ನುರಿ  
 ಪುರಿ  
 ಕುದಿ  
 ನುರುಳ್  
 ಬತ್ತು  
 ಬಳ್ಳಿ  
 ಬೇಡು  
 ತೋಡು  
 ಒಣಗು  
 ನೆರೆ  
 ಪದುಗು  
 ಪೊರ್ದು  
 ಒಟ್ಟು  
 ಮೇ  
 ಪರ್ಬು  
 ಪೆರ್ಬು  
 ಪೊಣಿಮಡು  
 ಪಡೆ  
 ನೇರ್  
 ಒರೆ  
 ನನೆ  
 ನೆನೆ  
 ಮರೆ  
 ಪದೆ  
 ನೆಟ್ಟು  
 ಕಳ್ಳಿ  
 ನೊಡೆ  
 ನಮ  
 ಕಡೆ  
 ತಡೆ  
 ಪೊಡೆ  
 ಒಡೆ  
 ಎರೆ  
 ಕೆಡೆ  
 ಪೊರೆ  
 ತೋಣ್  
 ಅಳ  
 ಮೊಗೆ  
 ಕರೆ  
 ಬೆಳಗು  
 ತೊರೆ

ಮುಂಟಂಗು  
 ಮುಂಟುಂಗು  
 ಏಲಿಂಗು  
 ಓನು  
 ಕುನು  
 ಉಟಿಂಗು  
 ಮಿನುಂಗು  
 ಶೀ  
 ತಿರುಪ್ಪು  
 ನೀಕ್ಕು  
 ಪೂರಳ್  
 ಶೂಡು  
 ಪೂಕು  
 ಅಲಶು  
 ಶುಟ್ಟು  
 ಶಾರ್  
 ಶೋರ್  
 ಶೆರ್  
 ವಿರ್  
 ತೋರ್  
 ಶುಪ್ಪೆ  
 ತುಳಂಗು  
 ಪರ  
 ತುಡಂಗು  
 ಶುರುಂಗು  
 ತಗೈ  
 ತೇಯ್  
 ನಾಟ್ಟು  
 ತಪ್ಪು  
 ತಡುಮಾಟು  
 ತದೈ  
 ಪರಪ್ಪು  
 ಪಶಿ  
 ಎಟು  
 ಎರಿ  
 ಇಡಲು  
 ಕದಲು  
 ಉದಲು  
 ಉಳಲು  
 ಕುಟ್ಟು  
 ತೋನ್ದು  
 ಉದವು  
 ಕಿಟುಕ್ಕು  
 ತಾಕ್ಕು  
 ತೂಕ್ಕು  
 ಉಯ

ಪೊಟಗು  
 ಮುಟ್ಟು  
 ಬೇಗು  
 ಒಂದು  
 ಕುಂದು  
 ಒಟಗು  
 ಮಿನುಗು  
 ಕೀ  
 ತಿದು  
 ನೀಗು  
 ಪೂರಳ್  
 ನೂಡು  
 ಪೂನು  
 ಅಲನು  
 ನುಟ್ಟು  
 ನಾರ್  
 ನೋರ್  
 ನರ್  
 ಬರ್  
 ನೋರ್  
 ನವಿ  
 ತೋಳಗು  
 ಪರೆ  
 ತೊಡಗು  
 ನುಕು  
 ತಗೆ  
 ತೇ  
 ನಾಂಟು  
 ತಪ್ಪು  
 ತಡಮಾಡು  
 ನಡೆ  
 ಪರಪ್ಪು  
 ಪಸಿ  
 ಇಟು  
 ಉರಿ  
 ಎಡಲು  
 ಗದಲು  
 ಒದಲು  
 ಒಳಲು  
 ಕೊಲು  
 ತೋಲು  
 ಒದವು  
 ಕಿಟುಕ್ಕು  
 ತಾಗು  
 ತೂಗು  
 ಉಯ್

ವಿಯರ್	ಬೆಮರ್	ಕರುಗು	ಕಟ್ಟು
ಉಣರ್	ಒಣರ್	ಶೂಳುಣು	ನೂರುಳ್
ಪೊನ್ನ	ಪೊಂದು	ತೊಡು	ತುದು
ಕನ್ನ	ಕಂದು	ನೋಲ	ನೋಲ್
ಐ		ಕಮ್ಮು	ಕಮ್ಮು
ಎಯ್ಪು	ಎಯ್ಪು	ತಿರೈ	ಕೆರೆ

The same roots have in some cases acquired different meanings in one or other of the three languages. Thus, the root ಪಾರ್ once meant to see or study in all the languages as is indicated by the words for a Brāhman ಪಾರ್ಪಾ in Tamil, ಪಾರ್ವಂ in Kannada and ಬಾಪಡು in Telugu, which mean "one who sees or studies (the Vedas)." In Tamil the original meaning of the root, to see, is still retained; in Kannada it now means to look for, and in Telugu the root has lost the original meaning altogether, though the verbal noun ಪಾರುವ corresponding to the Tamil ಪಾರ್ವು means sight or glance. The Tamil root ತಿಗಪ್ means to shine, but the corresponding roots ತೆಗಪ್ in Kannada and ತೆಗಡು in Telugu, mean to blame. Again, ನಿಗಪ್ in Tamil means to take place, but the corresponding ನೆಗಪ್ in Kannada and ನೆಗಡು in Telugu mean to be famous. ಈ in Kannada and ಈನು in Telugu mean to bring forth, as cattle and other beasts, but in Tamil it is used in connection with human beings also. Further, Telugu possesses two roots, ಅಡಗು and ವಿನು, to express the senses of asking and listening, but Tamil and Kannada have only one root ಕೇಳ್ to express both the senses. As an instance of specialisation may be given the distinction made in Tamil with regard to the meaning of the three synonymous roots, ಈ, ತಾ, ಕೊಡು (to give), which is not found in Kannada. Sūtra 448\* of the Tamil Grammar Nannūl says that of the three roots ಈ, ತಾ, ಕೊಡು, ಈ is to be used by an inferior to a superior when asking for something, ತಾ by an equal to an equal, and ಕೊಡು by a superior to an inferior.

\* ಈ ತಾ ಕೊಡುವೆನು ಮೂನ್ಮು ಮುಣ್ಣುಯೇ  
ಇಯಿಂದೊಲನೊಪ್ಪೋಲ್ ಮಿಕ್ಕೊಲನಿರಪ್ಪುರೈ.

The system of conjugation in these languages is remarkably simple. In fact, there is only one conjugation, as most of the trivial changes that are observed are merely euphonic, and not of sufficient importance to constitute different conjugations. There are only four moods, namely, the indicative, the imperative, the infinitive and the negative. The similarity of the pronominal terminations in the three languages is shown in the following table :—

	1st Person		2nd Person		3rd Person				
	Singular	Plural	Singular	Plural	Masculine Singular	Feminine Singular	Neuter Singular	Epitene Plural	Neuter Plural
Tamil	ಏಕ್ ಏಕ್	ಏಂ ಏಂ	ಆಯ್ ಐ ಐ	ಇರ್ ಈರ್	ಆಕ್ ಆಕ್	ಆಳ್ ಆಳ್	ಅದು ಐ ಐ	ಆರ್ ಆರ್	ಐನ್ ಐನ್
Kannada	ಏಕ್	ಏಂ	ಅಯ್ ಐ	ಇರ್	ಆಕ್	ಆಳ್	ಉದು ತು ತು	ಅರ್	ಉವು
Telugu	ನು	ಮು	ವು	ರು	ದು	ಅದಿ	ಅದಿ	ರು	ಅವಿ

It will be seen that the Tamil and Kannada terminations are nearly identical and that the Telugu terminations show only a slight similarity. Only the shorter forms of the Tamil suffixes are generally used in Old Kannada, but both the forms occur in Modern Kannada, the shorter in the past and future tenses, and the longer, in the present, the only exception being the suffix ಅಯ್. The longer suffix ಏಕ್ also occurs rarely in Old Kannada poetry, e.g., ಎನಗೀವೇನಂಚೆ ಕಂಪಂ (*Kabbigarakāva*, 317). But other longer forms such as ಆಕ್ and ಆರ್ are very common in ancient Kannada inscriptions, as also the

forms ಒ and ಒ which also occur in Tamil. The shorter form ಒ or ಒ for the usual ಅ or ಅ of the third person masculine singular is also frequently used in Old Kannada poetry. The termination for the first person singular in Kannada is really ಎ, but, as stated before, the final *n* is changed into a *bindu*, so that the singular and plural suffixes assume the same form, and we have to find out from the context whether ಎ is singular or plural. The Tamil suffixes for the neuter singular and plural, as given in the table, are ಅದು and ಅ, ಅನ, ಅ is only a shortened form of ಅನ, and *n* of ಅನ may be looked upon as a euphanised form of *v*, so that ಅನ is identical with ಅವ (the Malayālam neuter plural) or ಅವೈ, the neuter plural. We thus see that Tamil and Telugu use for the neuter suffixes the remote forms ಅದು ಅವೈ and ಅದಿ ಅವಿ, while Kannada uses the intermediate forms ಉದು ಉವು.

The formation of the past and future tenses is mostly the same in Tamil and Kannada. Not only are the temporal particles the same, namely, *t* or *d* for the preterite and *v*, *p* or *b* for the future, but also the changes that these particles undergo.

Preterite: ಶೆಯ್ಯೇ, ಕೆಯ್ಯೆಂ; ಪೆಱ್ಱೇ, ಪೆತ್ತೆಂ; ಕಂಡೇ, ಕಂಡೆಂ; ಮಿಕ್ಕೇ ಮಿಕ್ಕೆಂ.

Future: ಶೆಯ್ಯೇ ಕೆಯ್ಯೆಂ; ಇರುಪ್ಪೇ, ಇರ್ಪೆಂ; ಕಾಣ್ಬೇ ಕಾಣ್ಬೆಂ.

A few of the peculiarities common to both the languages in the formation of the past tense may be noticed here:—

(1) Some verbs form their preterite by the reduplication of their final consonants.

ಕಟ್ಟೇ ಕೆಟ್ಟೆಂ; ಪುಕ್ಕಾ ಪೊಕ್ಕೆಂ; ಪೆಱ್ಱೇ ಪೆತ್ತೆಂ. But ಕೊಟ್ಟೆಂ ಕೊಡುತ್ತಾ; ಪೊತ್ತೆಂ ಪೊಪುತ್ತಾ.

(2) Some shorten their initials when the sign of the past tense is affixed.

ವಾ, ವಂದಾ, ವಂದದು; ಬಾ, ಬಂದೆಂ, ಬಂದುದು. ಕಾಣ್,

ಕಂಡಾಣ್ ; ಕಾಣ್ ಕಂಡಂ ; ನೋ, ನೊಂದದು ; ನೋ, ನೊಂದುದು ; ವೇ, ವೊಂದದು ; ಬೇ, ಬೊಂದುದು.

The roots ಬೀಡ್, ವೀಡ್ and ಅಡ್ ಅಡ್ shorten their initials in Kannada but not in Tamil : ಬಿಟ್ಟಂ, ವೀಡ್‌ನ್ನಾಡ್ ; ಅಡಂ, ಅಡ್‌ನ್ನಾಡ್.

(3) Some change the temporal particle *d* into *d* and other letters.

ಉಂಡಾಣ, ಉಂಡಂ; ಕಂಡಾಣ, ಕಂಡಂ; ಕೊಂಡಾಣ, ಕೊಂಡಂ.  
ಶುಟಾಣ, ಸುಟ್ಟಂ; ಪುಕ್ಕಾಣ, ಪೊಕ್ಕಂ; ಶೆತ್ತಾಣ, ಸೆತ್ತಂ.

In ಕೊನ್ನಾಕ್, ಕೊಂದಂ; ನಿನ್ನಾಕ್, ನಂದಂ; ಶನ್ನಾಕ್, ಶಂದಂ—*nd* of the Kannaḍa verbs is, as stated before, the phonetic equivalent of the Tamil *nr*; in ವಾಡ್‌ನ್ನಾಕ್, ಬಾಡ್‌ಂದಂ; ಏಬ್ಬಂದಾಕ್, ಬಿಬ್ಬಂದಂ; ಕಟಿಂದಾಕ್, ಕಟಿಂದಂ—a nasal is inserted in the Tamil verbs; and in ಕಣ್ಣಾಕ್, ಕಲ್ತಂ; ಪೊಣ್ಣಾಕ್, ಪೊಳ್ತಂ the concurrent consonants of the Tamil verbs are euphonicallly changed according to the phonetic rules of that language, while those of the Kannaḍa verbs undergo no change.

Another temporal particle used for forming the past tense in all the three languages is *i*, which is followed by *ḍ* in Kannada and *n* in Tamil and Telugu. ಪಾಡಿವಂ, ಪಾಡಿನಾ, ಪಾಡಿನಾಡು. This is the only particle in Telugu, while Tamil and Kannada have the two particles *i* and *ḍ*. In ಪಾಡಿವಂ *i* is the sign of the past tense and *ḍ* which follows, though an old sign of the preterite, is supposed to be used here for preventing hiatus, just like *n* in Tamil. In classical Tamil occur the verbs ಶೆಯ್ದು and ಶೆಯ್ದುಂ (ಕೆಯ್ದು and ಕೆಯ್ದುಂ) as the singular and plural of the first person not only in the past tense but also in the future. There is likewise another form of the past tense ಪಾಡೆನು in Telugu which does not show the temporal particle *i*, but the plural ಪಾಡಿಂ shows it clearly. In Telugu grammars *e* also is given as a sign of the preterite.

As stated before, the future tense is mostly alike in Tamil and Kannada. But one or two peculiarities in Tamil may be noted here. Classical Tamil has, as a

sign of the future tense, ಕು or ಗು for the first person singular and ಕುಂ or ಗುಂ for the first person plural : ಶಯ್ಯು, ಶಯ್ಯುಂ. Kannada, too, possesses the suffix ಕುಂ or ಗುಂ, which is, however, used not in the first person but in the third person singular and plural of all the three genders. ಅವಂ, ಅವಳ್, ಅದು, ಅವರ್, ಅವು—ಇಕುಂ, ನಡೆಗುಂ. It has further to be noted that Tamil does not form its third person neuter singular by affixing the temporal particles *v*, *p* or *b*, but has to borrow the aorist future in ಉಂ which also serves as the future relative participle. Thus, instead of ವರುವದು it uses the form ವರುಂ. In this respect Kannada is more regular since it uses the form ಬರ್ಪುದು or ಬರುವುದು containing the temporal particle *p* or *v*. In Telugu the future tense is formed not by affixing any temporal particle but by the use of the auxiliary verb ಕಲಗು : ಕೊಟ್ಟುಕಗಲನು, I shall strike ; ಕೊಟ್ಟುಕಗಲಮು, we shall strike. There is, however, a peculiar tense in Telugu known as ತದ್ವರ್ತಮು, corresponding to the present indefinite, which is used to express what is true at all times. This may be taken as another future tense. In this the third person neuter singular is formed by adding the suffix ನು to the root : ಚೇಯುನು, ಅವುನು. And this form corresponds to the Tamil neuter singular in *um*—ಶಯ್ಯುಂ, ಆಗುಂ.

There does not appear to be a proper present tense in the Dravidian dialects. Formerly Tamil had only the past and future tenses and no present tense. The oldest grammar of the Tamil language, *Tolkāppiyam*, does not mention it, and it is only the later grammar *Nannūl* of the 12th century, that gives the suffixes ಅನಿನ್ದು, ಕಿನ್ದು and ಕಿಲು for the present tense. The suffix in Old Kannada is ದಪ and in Modern Kannada ಉತ or ಉತ್ತ. And the suffix in Telugu is ಉಚು. ಶಯ್ಯುನಿನ್ದೇ, ಶಯ್ಯುನ್ದೇ ಶಯ್ಯುನ್ದೇ ; ಗೆಯ್ಯುಪೆಂ ಗೆಯ್ಯುತ್ತೇನೆ ; ಚೇಯುಚುನ್ದಾನು. From the Telugu form we see that the present tense in



that language is formed by adding the substantive verb ಉನ್ನಾಸು to the present verbal participle ಚೇಯುಚು of the verb ಚೇಯು to do. The same is the case with the Aryan vernaculars of the North. The Bengālī present tense ಕಂತೇ is made up of the present participle ಕಂತೇ and the substantive verb ಅಫ. The Kannada suffixes are quite different from those of Tamil, but the Modern Kannada suffix ಉತೆ is similar to the Telugu suffix ಉಚು, the colloquial form of which is ಉತು. The form ಗೆಯ್ಯುತ್ತೇನೆ of Modern Kannada is a corruption of ಗೆಯ್ಯುಥೇನು which is even now heard in some parts of the Kannada country, and ಗೆಯ್ಯುಥೇನು is made up of the present verbal participle ಗೆಯ್ಯುತ or ಗೆಯ್ಯುತೆ and the substantive verb ಇಹೆನು, exactly like the Telugu form. Similarly the correct forms for the third person singular, masculine and feminine, are ಗೆಯ್ಯುಥಾನು and ಗೆಯ್ಯುಥಾಳು which stand for ಗೆಯ್ಯುತ + ಅಹನು and ಗೆಯ್ಯುತ + ಅಹಳು. In the same manner the Old Kannada form ಇರ್ದಪೆಂ is corrupted into ಇದ್ದೇನು which is compounded of the past verbal participle ಇದ್ದ and the verb ಅಹನು. Similarly ಗೆಯ್ಯಪೆಂ = ಗೆಯ್ಯು + ಅಹೆಂ, so that the temporal particle has to be taken as ಅಪೆ or ಅಪ್ಪ and not as ದಪ as given in the grammars. We thus see that the present tense in Kannada is formed by annexing the verbs ಇಹೆಂ or ಅಹೆಂ (ಅಪ್ಪೆಂ) to the present and past verbal participles : ಇರುಥೇನು (ಇರುತಿಹೆಂ or ಇರುತಹೆಂ), ಇದ್ದೇನು (ಇದ್ದಹೆಂ). In ಕೂಡಿದಪೆಂ *d* is used to prevent hiatus as is the case in the past tense ಕೂಡಿದಂ. The final *e* was subsequently added either as a mark of emphasis or as a help to enunciation. More probably it was used as a mark of distinction between the present and the contingent forms. This *e* is not found in Tamil and Telugu. In Tamil the present tense is very seldom seen in early poetical works and has never been found in old inscriptions, thus showing that it is of recent origin. This probably accounts for the unusual fact that Tamil and Kannada which agree so closely in the formation of the

past and future tenses differ so widely in the formation of the present tense. The so-called present tense in these languages is really an imperfect tense. It may also be added here that unlike Tamil, Kannada and Telugu possess a contingent future: ಅಡಿಯಾನು ಅಡಿಯಾಳು ಅಡೀತು; ಅಡೇನಿ ಅಡಿಯಾರು ಅಡೇರು; ಅಡೀಯೆ ಅಡೇಪು; ಅಡೀರಿ ಅಡೇರು; ಅಡಿಯೇನು ಅಡೇನು; ಅಡಿಯೇಪು, ಅಡೇಮು.

The negative mood or voice forms, as stated before, one of the distinctive features of the Dravidian family of languages. The negative mood. Tamil and Kannada are in perfect agreement in the formation of this mood, both of them annexing the pronominal suffixes directly to the verbal theme: ಕೊಡೇ ಕುಡೆಂ; ಶೆಯ್ಯೇ ಕೆಯ್ಯೆಂ; ವಾರಾ ಬಾರಂ; ಶೆಯ್ಯಾದು ಕೆಯ್ಯದು. In Telugu, however, *a*, the negative particle, is inserted between the root and the termination. ಚೇಯನು ಚೇಯಮು; ಚೇಯಪು ಚೇಯರು; ಚೇಯಡು ಚೇಯರು. The same is the case in the other languages also as is evidenced by the forms ಅಱುಯಾದೇ ಅಱುಯದೆ; ಅಱುಯಾದ ಅಱುಯದೆ, corresponding to the Telugu forms ಚೇಯಕ ಚೇಯನ; only the negative particle is *a* in Kannada as in Telugu, and *ā* in Tamil. But in very early Kannada the particle *ā*, too, occurs as in Tamil, e.g., ತಪ್ಪಾದೆ. The particles are also clearly seen in the negative abstract nouns ಶೆಯ್ಯಾವೈ ಕೆಯ್ಯಮೆ ಚೇಯಮಿ. The negative particle *a* may probably be a contraction of *al* and in this form it occurs in the imperative mood in Old Tamil and Kannada poetry: ಪಯನಿರ್ ಶೊಟ್ಟಾರಾಟ್ಟು ವಾನೈ ಮಗನೇನರ್, ಶೆಯ್ಯಟ್ಟು, ಶೆಯ್ಯನ್ನಿ; ಬನದಲ್ಲ ಪುಗರ್ ಪುಗಲೆಂಬ ಗಂಡುಗೋಗಿರೆ, ಬಗೆಯರ್, ಬಗೆಯಲಿಂ. *Al* does not occur in Telugu: ಚೇಯಕುಮು. In poetical Tamil ಶೆಯ್ಯಾ is used for ಶೆಯ್ಯದು. Similarly ಆಗ or ಆಗಾ is used for ಆಗದು in Kannada.

The causative particle used in Tamil is *v* which euphonically assumes the shapes of *p* and *b* also. *P* also occurs as a causative particle in Kannada and Telugu: ಅಟಿವಿ ಕಿಡವಿ ಕಾಣ್ವಿ; ತೆಳಿವಿ ತಿಳಿಪು ತೆಲುಪು; ತಿರುಪ್ಪು ತಿರುಪು ತ್ರಿಪ್ಪು; ಅಟಿಪು ಕೆಡಪು ಕಾಣ್ಪು.

ಮದಿಪು ಇಟಿಪು ; ಚೂಪು ಮೇಪು ರೇಪು ಉಡುಪು ನೇರುಪು. Besides *p*, Kannada has in common with Telugu the suffix *chu*, and also *isu* the corresponding Telugu suffix being *inchu* : ಪೊಣಚು, ಅಬಲ್ಪು, ನಾಚು ; ತೇಲುಚು ಪೊನುಚು, ಕುದುರುಚು ; ಕಟ್ಟಿಸು ಕಟ್ಟಿಂಚು ; ಮಾಣಿಸು ಮಾನಿಂಚು ; ಕರಗಿಸು ಕರಗಿಂಚು ; ಗುಣಿಸು ಗುಣಿಯಿಸು ಗುಣಿಯಿಂಚು. The suffix *chu* also occurs in Modern Tamil—ಪಾಯ್ಚು.

I may add here that in Tamil intransitive verbs become transitive by the doubling and hardening of the consonant of the formative or tense sign : ಪೆರುಗು ಪೆರುಕ್ಕು ; ವಾಡು ವಾಟ್ಟು ; ತಿರುಂದು ತಿರುತ್ತು ; ಶೇರ್‌ಗಿಟ್ಟೇ ಶೇರ್‌ಕ್ಕಿಟ್ಟೇ.

The formation of appellative verbs is similar in all the three languages, only Telugu has not a proper third person singular except the neuter singular : ಶೇವಗನೇ ಸೇವಕನೇ ಸೇವಕುಡನು ; ಶೇವಗನಯ್ ಸೇವಕನಯ್ ಸೇವಕುಡಪು. The plural forms are regular in Tamil, plurality being expressed by the personal termination alone ; but in Kannada and Telugu the noun, too, is pluralised. ಶೇವಗನೇಂ ಸೇವಕರೇಪು ಸೇವಕುಲಮು. Kannada has two plural forms when pronouns and adjectives are used as appellative verbs ; ಹಿರಿಯೆಪು ಪಿರಿಯರೆಪು ; ಪೆಣ್ಣೆಪು ಪೆಣ್ಣರೆಪು ; ಪಿರಿಯರ್ ಪಿರಿಯರಿರ್.

All the three languages agree in using the verbal theme or root as the second person singular in the imperative mood : ಶಯ್ ಕಯ್ ಚೇಯು ; ಕೊಳ್ ಕೊಳ್ ಕೊನು ; ಪಾಡು ಪಾಡು ಪಾಡು. The imperative. singular in the imperative mood : In Telugu, however, the suffix *mu* is generally added to the root : ಚೇಯುಮು ಪಾಡುಮು ಪಿಲ್ಲುಮು ರಕ್ಷಿಂಪುಮು. In Tamil and Kannada the suffix *a* is added to the root when it is intended to express wish or entreaty rather than command : ನೀ ವಿಳಂಗ, ಪೊಲಯ ; ನೀಂ ಕೇಳ, ನೋಡ. In Telugu the suffix *mu* becomes *ma* : ಚೇಯುಮು ಪೋಪಿಂಪುಮು. The second person plural suffix is *mi* in Tamil, *in* in Kannada and *du* in Telugu : ಶೆಯ್ಯಿ ಕೆಯ್ಯಿಂ ಚೇಯುಂಡು. If, as some scholars suppose, the *m* of the Tamil suffix *min* is euphonic, then the identity of the Tamil and Kannada

suffixes becomes clear. Modern Tamil uses *um* in place of *min*: ಪಾಡುಂ ವಾಱುಂ. Modern Kannada either omits the *m* of the suffix *im*, or adds the suffix *iri* which corresponds to the Tamil suffix *ir*, the final *i* being merely enunciative: ಕೇಳಿ ನೋಡಿ; ಕೇಳೀರ್ ಕೇಳಿರಿ. The forms used for the negative are also nearly identical in Tamil and Kannada, but different in Telugu: ಶಯ್ಯನ್ನಿ ಕಯ್ಯಲಿಂ ಚೇಯಕುಡು. The first person plural suffix in Kannada is *am* and in Telugu *dam*: ಕಯ್ಯಂ ಚೇಯುದಮು. If *d* is considered euphonic, the suffixes become the same in both languages. The verbal noun with the suffix *ಅದು* and its equivalents is used as an imperative in all the three languages: ಪೋವದು ಪೋಪುದು ಪೋಪುನದಿ. In Tamil *al* is both the affirmative and negative suffix in the second person singular, but in Kannada only the negative suffix: ಪಯನಿಲ್ ಶೊಟ್ಟಾರ್ ಪಾಟ್ಟು ವಾನ್ಯೆ ಮಗನೇನಲ್ ಮಕ್ಕಟ್ಟ ದಡಿಯನಲ್; ಪುಗಲ್. The suffix for the third person singular and plural is *ke* or *ge* in Kannada and *ka* in Tamil: ಕಿಡುಗ ಕಿಡುಗ; ಬಾಡ್ಗ ವಾಟ್ಟ; ರಕ್ಷಕ್ಕೆ ಷರಕ್ಷಕ್ಕೆ. Modern Kannada has also the forms ಪೋಗ್ ಆಗ್. The suffixes in Telugu are quite different: ಎಡು and ತೆ. ಪೋಷಿಂಚೆಡು ಪೋಷಿಂಚುತೆ; ಮೇಲುಗಲಿಗಡು ಮೇಲುಗಲುಗುತೆ.

The infinitive suffix common to the three languages is *a*. ಶಯ್ಯ ಕಯ್ಯ ಚೇಯ. Sometimes The infinitive. datives of verbal nouns in *ಅಲ್* in Tamil and Kannada and in *ಲಟ* in Telugu are used as infinitives: ಕಾಣು ಕಾಣಲ್ ಕನುಟಕು; ಶಯ್ಯು ಕಯ್ಯಲ್ ಚೇಯು ಟಕು. In Kannada infinitives end in *al* also: ಬೇಡಲ್ ಕೊಲ್ಲಲ್ ಕೆಯ್ಯಲ್. These forms are identical with the Tamil verbal nouns ವೇಂಡಲ್ ಕೊಲ್ಲಲ್ ಶಯ್ಯಲ್. They are not, however, used as verbal nouns in Kannada at present, though there seems to be a great probability of their having been so used at one time as the following examples seem to indicate: ಕಯ್ಯಲಾಯ್ ಶಯ್ಯಲಾಯ್; ಕೂಡಲರಿದು ಕೂಡಲರಿದು; ಕಯ್ಯಲ್ ಪೇಟ್ಟುಂ ಶಯ್ಯಲ್ ಪೇಂಡುಂ; ಕಯ್ಯಲ್ ತಕ್ಕುದು ಶಯ್ಯಲ್ ತಕ್ಕುದು. In the examples ಮಾಡವೇಟ್ಟುಂ, ಪೋಗ್



ಕೂಡದು, ತರವೇಪ್ we have to suppose that *l* is omitted. Similarly in ಚೇಯಗೂಡದು, ಚೇಯರಾದು, ಚೇಯವರೆನು the suffix ಲುಟ may be supposed to be omitted. In ಮಾಡರಾಪೋದಂ, ಕೇಳರಾಬಂದಂ the dative suffix *ke* is understood.

As stated before, the use of the relative participle

The relative participle.

is a characteristic feature of the Dravidian languages. The relative participle is a participial adjective

invariably followed by a noun. It very well answers the purpose of the relative pronoun which the Dravidian languages do not possess. The suffix most largely used in the three languages in the formation of this participle is *a*, which is invariably annexed to the temporal particles: ಶೆಯ್ ಕೆಯ್ ಚೇಸಿನ; ನಡಂದ ನಡೆದ ನಡೆತಿನ; ಪಾಡಿನ ಪಾಡಿದ ಪಾಡಿನ; ಶೆಯ್ಯನಿನ್ ಕೆಯ್ಯತ್ತಿರ್ಪ್ ಚೇಯುಚುನ್; ಓದುವ ಚೆದುವಗಲ.

In the formation of the preterite relative participle appear the same peculiarities as were noticed in the formation of the past tense. In Kannaḍa and Telugu there is no proper present relative participle; what is used as such is formed by the addition of the substantive verb, *e.g.*, ಪಾಡುತ್ತಿರುವ (and not ಪಾಡಿದಪ), ಪಾಡುಚುನ್. Tamil has the forms ಪಾಡಾನಿನ್, ಪಾಡುಗಿನ್, ಪಾಡುಗಿಲ. Tamil has now no future relative participle corresponding to the Kannaḍa one in *a*, ಬರ್ಪ ಬರುವ, though instances of such participles occur in Old Tamil poetry: ಕುಷ್ಟಕಮೇರ್ ವರವಪೋರ್ ಕಲುಱ್ ಮೇರ್ ವಂದು ತೋನ್ರಿನಾಕ್ (*Kamba-Rāmāyaṇam*, *Bālakāṇḍam*). The existence in Tamil of a future relative participle in *a* is also indicated by forms such as ಪೋವದು, ಕಾಣ್ವವಕ್, etc. The form now used instead is the aorist future in *um*, ಶೆಯ್ಯುಂ, ಪಾಡುಂ, ಕೊಲ್ಲುಂ, without any temporal suffix. Besides the regular form, Kannaḍa makes use of this form also: ಪಾಡುಂ ಕುಯರ್ ಪಾಡುಂಗೆೋಗಿರೆ. ಅಡುಂಬೊಲಂ, ಎಳುಂಬೊವ್ವನಂ, ತೂಗುಂಬೊಟ್ಟಿಲ್, ಕುತ್ತಂಗಣ್, ಇಳಿಯುಂಬೊಟ್ಟು. Again, both the languages omit the suffix *um* and use the root alone in combination: ಶುಡುಗಾದು ಸುಡುಗಾದು; ಅಡುಗೂಪ್ ಅಡುಗೂಪ್; ಕೊರೆಯಾನ್ಯೆ.

ಬಿಡುಗಣ್, ಬಿಡುವಾಯ್. In Telugu, too, there is no regular future relative participle, this participle being formed in that language by the addition of ಕಲ from the root ಕಲುಗು : ಜೇಯ್ಕಗಲ ಕೊಟ್ಟುಗಲ. There are also the suffixes ಎದು and ಎಡಿ added to the root to express the same idea : ಜೇಯೆಡು ಜೇಯೆಡಿ ; ಕೊಟ್ಟೆಡು ಕೊಟ್ಟೆಡಿ. Further, the root alone is also used in combination as in Tamil and Kannada : ಚದುಪು ಪಾಠಮು, ಜೇಯುಪು. The negative relative participle in Telugu ends in *ni* unlike those of Tamil and Kannada which end in *a*. The particle of negation is *ā* in Tamil and *a* in Kannada and Telugu : ಶಯ್ಯಾದ ಕೆಯ್ಯದ ಜೇಯನಿ ; ಪಾಡಾದ ಪಾಡದ ಪಾಡನಿ.

The formation of the preterite verbal participle is exactly the same in Tamil and Kannada. The suffixes used are *u* and *i*, of which *u* is always annexed to the temporal particle, while *i* is annexed directly to the verbal theme : ವಾಪ್ಪನ್ದು ಬಾಪ್ಪು ; ಕಂಡು ಕಂಡು ; ಕಟ್ಟು ಕಟ್ಟು ; ಕೆಯ್ಯು ಕೆಯ್ಯು ; ಅಡಿ ಅಡಿ ; ವೇಂಡಿ ಬೇಡಿ ; ಅರುಪ್ಪಿ ಅರುಪಿ. Telugu uses only one suffix *i* : ಪಾಡಿ, ಕೊಟ್ಟಿ, ಮುಟ್ಟಿ, ಪೋಷಿಂಚಿ. Telugu agrees with Kannada in having a present participle which is not found in Tamil, as also in not having a future participle which is found in Tamil. The present participle is formed in Kannada by the addition of ಉತೆ or ಉತ್ತೆ and ಉತುಂ or ಉತ್ತುಂ, and in Telugu by the addition of ಉಡು : ಪಾಡುತೆ ಪಾಡುತ್ತೆ ; ಪಾಡುತುಂ ಪಾಡುತ್ತುಂ ; ಪಾಡುಡು. ಅನುತುಂ ಅನುಡು. The negative verbal participle ends in ದು in Tamil, in ದೆ in Kannada and in ಕ in Telugu, the particle of negation being, as in the negative relative participle, ಅ in Tamil and ಅ in Kannada and Telugu : ತಪ್ಪಾದು ತಪ್ಪದೆ ತಪ್ಪಕ ; ಕೆಯ್ಯಾದು ಕೆಯ್ಯದೆ ಜೇಯಕ. In ancient Kannada the Tamil form ತಪ್ಪಾದೆ with a long *a* occurs.

The passive voice is rarely used in the Dravidian languages. It has no special suffix and the passive signifi-



tion is expressed by auxiliary verbs such as ಪಡು signifying "to suffer": ಕಟ್ಟಪ್ಪಟ್ಟದು ಕಟ್ಟಲ್ ಪಟ್ಟದು ಕಟ್ಟಬಡೆನು. There are several ways in which an active verb is used to express a passive sense: ಉಡ್ಡೆಂದದು ಒಡೆಯಿತು ಎಣುಗೆನು (it was broken); ಎಣುದಿನಪುತ್ತಗಂ ಬರೆದ ಪುಸ್ತಕಂ ವ್ರಾಸಿನ ಪುಸ್ತಕಮು (a written book); ಶೆಯ್ಯರಾಯಿಣ್ಣು ಕೆಯ್ಯರಾಯ್ತು ಜೆಯ್ಯುಟ ಅಯಿನದಿ (it was done); ಅಡಿಯುಂಡಾಳ್ ಜಟುತಂದನು ದಬ್ಬದಿನೆನು (he was beaten).

As stated before, Malayālam has dropped the personal terminations and uses the verbal participle as a finite verb : ಥಾಳಾಡಿಚು (ಅಡುತ್ತ), I beat; ನೀ ಅಡಿಚು, you beat; ಅವ್ ಅಡಿಚು, he beat.

Telugu does not possess, like Tamil and Kannada, distinct suffixes for denoting different genders, numbers and persons. It uses, as has already been stated, the neuter suffix for the third person feminine singular. Again in the present, future and indefinite tenses the forms for the second and third person plurals are the same—ಕೊಟ್ಟು ಚುನ್ನಾರು, ಕೊಟ್ಟು ಗಲರು, ಕೊಟ್ಟು ದುರು, ಕೊಟ್ಟು ದರು; in the past and indefinite tenses the forms for the third person singular of the three genders and the third person neuter plural are the same—he, she, it, they ಕೊಟ್ಟೆನು, ಕೊಟ್ಟೆನು, ಕೊಟ್ಟೆನು, ಕೊಟ್ಟೆನಿ; and in the future tense the forms for the second person singular and the third person neuter plural are the same—ಕೊಟ್ಟು ಗಲವು.

#### INDECLINABLES.

Some of the indeclinables are either identical or similar in form in all the three languages or any two of them. The conjunctive *um*, the emphatic *ē*, the interrogative *ē* and *ō*, the particles of doubt *ā* and *ō*, and the particle of similarity *pōl* are the same in Tamil and Kannada. The emphatic *ē*, the interrogative *ō* and the particle of doubt *ā* are also found in Telugu. The conjunctive particle in Telugu is *nu* or *yu*. ಅಯ್ಯೋ, ಅಹಾ,

ಓಕೋ, ಚೀ are common to the three languages. Some similar forms found in Tamil and Kannada are :

ಮಟ್ಟು ಮತ್ತು, ಇನಿ ಇಂ, ಮುಫ್ ಮುಂ, ಪಿಫ್ ಪಿಂ, ಮಿಗ ಮಿಗೆ, ತವ ತವ, ಶಾಲ ಸಲೆ, ವೆಣುಮನ್ನೆ ಬಣುದೆ, ಉಣು ಉಣು, ವೇಣು ಬೇಣು, ಶುಮ್ಮಾ ಸುಮ್ಮನೆ, ಉಡೆ ಒಡನೆ, ಅನ್ನು ಅಂದು, ಇನ್ನು ಇಂದು, ಎನ್ನು ಎಂದು, ನಾಳೆ ನಾಳೆ, ಎನ್ನಲೋಡುಂ ಎನ್ನಲೊಡಂ, ವರುವದುಂ ಬರ್ವುದುಂ, ತನ್ನೆಯುಂ ತನಕ, ಪಡಪಡನೆ ಪಟಪಟನೆ.

A few found in Kannada and Telugu are :

ಮೊನ್ನೆ ಮೊನ್ನೆ, ಅಕ್ಕಟ ಅಕ್ಕಟ, ತಟಕ್ಕನೆ ತಟಕ್ಕನ, ಕಟ್ಟನೆ ಗ್ರಕ್ಕನ, ಇಗೋ ಇಗೋ, ಮುತ್ತ ಮುಟು.

A few similar forms found in the three languages are :

ನೆನರ್ ನಿನೆ ನಿನ್ನ ; ನಾಳೆನಿನ್ನು ನಾಳೆದ್ದು ಎಲ್ಲುಂಡಿ ; ಯಾದಾನುಂ (ಯಾದಾಯಿನುಂ) ಏನಾನುಂ ಏಮಯಿನ.

### FORMATION OF WORDS.

Simple words are formed from verbal or nominal roots by the addition of suffixes.

Verbal nouns.

Verbal nouns are formed either by adding certain suffixes to the verbal theme or by some internal change in the root itself such as the lengthening of the root vowel, etc. In some cases, however, the verbal noun is identical with the root itself. Some suffixes are similar in the three languages and some in two, while others are peculiar to each language :

ತರ್ ತ ತ—ಶೆಯ್ದರ್ ಕೆಯ್ ಚೇತ ; ಆಲ್ಯೆದರ್ ಆಲೆತ ಆಲತ. ಕೈ ಕೆ ಕ—ಪಡುಕ್ಕೈ ಪಡ್ ಪಡುಕ ; ಅಮರಿಕ್ಕೈ ಅಮರ್ಕ್ ಅಮರಿಕ ; ಅಂಜಿಕ್ಕೈ ಅಂಜಿಕೆ ಅಂಜಿಕ. ವಡಿಕ್ಕೈ ವಡಿಕೆ ವಡಿಕ—ನಡವಡಿಕ್ಕೈ ನಡವಡಿಕೆ ನಡವಡಿಕ. ಪು ಪು ವಿ—ತಳಿಪು ತಿಳಿಪು ತೆಲಿವಿ. ಪು ಪು ಪು—ಶಾವು ನಾವು ಚಾವು. ವಡಿ ವಳಿ ವಡಿ—ನಡವಡಿ ನಡವಳಿ ನಡವಡಿ. (Negative) ಅಮೈ ಅಮೆ ಅಮಿ—ಶೆಯ್ಯಾಮೈ ಕೆಯ್ಯಾಮೆ ಚೇಯಿಮಿ.

*Suffixes which are similar in Tamil and Kannada.*

ಉಳ್—ವಿಕ್ಕುಳ್ ಬಿಕ್ಕುಳ್ ; ಪು—ಅಯಿಪು ಅಯಿಪು, ಅಣುಪು ಅಣುಪು ; ಅಪು—ಕಳಪು ಕಳಪು, ವರಪು ಬರಪು, ಶೆಲಪು ಸಲಪು ; ಆಂ—ಆಟಂ ಆಟಂ, ನಡುಕ್ಕಂ ನಡುಕಂ, ಅಟ್ಟಂ ಅಟಂ, ಕೂಟ್ಟಂ ಕೂಟಂ ; ಐ ಎ—ಕೊಲೈ ಕೊಲೆ, ನಗೈ ನಗೆ, ಕೊಡೈ ಕೊಡೆ ; ಪು ಪು or ಏ—ಕಾವು ಕಾಪು, ನಿನ್ನೆತ್ತು ನೆನಪು.

ನೋನ್ನು ನೋಂಪಿ ; ವಿ ವೆ OR ಪಿ—ಮಹವಿ ಮಹವೆ, ಕೇಳ್ವಿ ಕೇಳ್ವೆ, ಕಲ್ವಿ ಕಲ್ವೆ ;  
ಚಿ ತೆ—ಪುಗಟ್ಟಿ ಪೊಗಡ್ತೆ, ನಿಗಟ್ಟಿ ನೆಗಡ್ತೆ.

*Suffixes which are similar in Kannada and Telugu.*

ಮೆ ಮಿ—ತಾಳ್ತೆ ತಾಲಮಿ ; ಗಡೆ ಗಡ—ತೇಲುಗಡೆ ತೇಲುಗಡೆ, ಬಡುಗಡೆ  
ಬಡುಗಡೆ ; ಪು—ತಡವು ತಡವು ; ವಳಿ ಬಡಿ—ಸಾಗುವಳಿ ಸಾಗುಬಡಿ ; ಪ—  
ತಿರಿಪಂ ತಿರಿಪಮು.

*Suffixes peculiar to Tamil.*

ಮೈ—ಪಾವೈ ; ಕು—ಪೋಕ್ಕು ; ದಿ—ಮಹದಿ ; ಚಿ—ಪುಣರ್ಚಿ ; ಕಾಡು  
—ಶಾಕ್ಕಾಡು.

*Suffixes peculiar to Kannada.*

ಇನು—ಉಣಿಸು ; ಗುಳ್—ಬಯ್ಗುಳ್ ; ಪ—ರಪಂ ; ವಿ—ಬರವಿ ;  
ಹು—ಬಾಹು.

*Suffixes peculiar to Telugu.*

ಉಟ—ಚೇಯುಟ ; ಪು—ಪಿಡುಪು ; ಕಿ—ಕೋರಿಕಿ ; ಅ—ಎಂಡ ; ಅಕ—  
ಅಮ್ಮಕಮು ; ಡು—ದಿಗುಡು ಅಮ್ಮಡು.

In all the three languages a large number of verbal nouns is formed by internal change such as the lengthening of the root vowel, etc.

ಕೇಡು ಕೇಡು ಚೇಟು ; ಪಾಡು ಪಾಡು ಪಾಟು ; ಪಾಟು ಹಾಡು ಪಾಟ ;  
ಮುಟುಕು ಮುಟುಕು ಮುನುಕ ; ಕೋಳ್ ಕೋಳ್ ; ಶೂಡು ನೂಡು ; ವೀಡು  
ಬೀಡು. ಎಟುತ್ತ, ಮೀಟ. ಕೋಡು, ಏನು. ಅಟು (from ಅಡುಡು),  
ಪೋಟು (from ಪೊಡುಡು).

Some verbal nouns in these languages are, as stated before, of the same form as the verbal theme itself.

ಕಟ್ಟು, ತಪ್ಪು ; ದಾಂಡು ದಾಂಟು ದಾಟು ; ಶೋಲ್, ಮುಟು ; ತಡೆ,  
ನುಡಿ ; ತಿಟ್ಟು ಮೆಚ್ಚು.

In Tamil and Kannada participial nouns are formed by affixing either demon-

Participial nouns. strative pronouns or pronominal terminations to the relative participles ending in *a*.

ವಂದಾಳ್ ವಂದೋಳ್ ವಂದವಳ್, ಬಂದಂ ಬಂದೊಂ ಬಂದವಂ ; ಪಂ  
ದಾಳ್ ವಂದವಳ್, ಬಂದಳ್ ಬಂದವಳ್ ; ವಂದಾರ್ ವಂದವರ್, ಬಂದರ್  
ಬಂದವರ್ ; ವಂದದು, ಬಂದುದು, ವಂದವೈ ಬಂದುವು ; ಪರುವಾ ಪರುಬವೆ,  
ಬರ್ಪಂ ಬರ್ಪವಂ ; ಪರುವಾಳ್ ಪರುಬವಳ್, ಬರ್ಪಳ್ ಬರ್ಪವಳ್ ; ಪರುವಾರ್  
ಪರುಬವರ್, ಬರ್ಪರ್ ಬರ್ಪವರ್ ; ಪರುವದು ಬರ್ಪದು, ಪರುಬವೈ ಬರ್ಪವು ;  
ಪಾರಾದಾಳ್ ಪಾರಾದವೆ, ಬಾರದಂ ಬಾರದವಂ ; etc.

In Telugu demonstrative pronouns alone are added.

ಚೇಸಿನವಾಂಡು, ಚೇಯಗಲವಾಂಡು; ಚೇಸಿನದಿ, ಚೇಯಗಲದಿ, etc.

Tamil has participial nouns of the present tense also : ಪರುಗಿವ್ವಾ ಪರುಗಿವ್ವೆ, etc.

But in Old Kannada there is no present participial noun according to Kēśirāja (*Śabdamanīdarpana*, sūtra 73), though Bhaṭṭākāṇka allows it (*Śabdānuśāsaṇa*, sūtra 447) ಬಂದಪನಂ, etc. In Modern Kannada, however, as in Telugu, the present participial noun is formed from the substantive verb added to the present verbal participle : ಪಾಡುತ್ತಿರುವಂ, ಪಾಡುತ್ತಿರುವವಂ, ಪಾಡುತುన్నವಾಂಡು, etc. The neuter participial noun is used in three senses—as the third person neuter of the verb, as a neuter relative participial noun and as a verbal participial noun. Thus ಮಾಡುವುದು or ಶೆಯ್ಯುಡುದು means 'it does,' or 'that which does,' or 'the doing' or 'to do.' The participial noun formed from the future is very common as a verbal noun in Kannada. Tamil possesses abstract relative participial nouns of the present and past tenses as well as participial nouns of the first and second persons, which are not found in Kannada and Telugu : ಪರುಗಿವ್ವಮ್ಮೆ, ವಂದಮ್ಮೆ ; ವಂದೇನ್ನೆ, ವಂದಾಯೆ, etc.

A few of the suffixes used in the formation of abstract nouns are common to all the three languages, while others are special to each or any two of them. The common suffixes are ಮ್ಮೆ, ಪು and ತನಂ. They are generally added to the crude form of the adjectives of quality :

ಪೆರುಮ್ಮೆ ಪರ್ಮೆ ಪೇರಿಮಿ ; ಮೇನ್ನೆ ಮೇಲೆ ಮೇಲಮಿ ; ನನ್ನೆ ನನ್ನೆ, ವನ್ನೆ ಬರ್ಮೆ, ಪಶುಮ್ಮೆ ಪಶುಮೆ ; ಶಿವಪ್ಪ ಕೆಂಪು ಕೆಂಪು ; ವೆಳುಪ್ಪ ಬೆಳ್ಳು ತೆರುಪು ; ಇನ್ನಪ್ಪ ಇಂಪು ; ಕಪ್ಪು ಕರ್ಪು ; ಪೆರಿಯತನಂ ಪಿರಿಯ ತನಂ ಗೊಪ್ಪತನಮು ; ಕಲಿತನಂ ಕಲಿತನಮು ; ಅಗ್ಗಲಕೆ ಅಗ್ಗಲಕ.

Of the special suffixes may be mentioned ಗು, ಲಂ in Tamil ನನ್ನ, ನಲಂ ; ಣಕ, ನ in Telugu ಚಿನ್ನ ಣಿಕಮು, ನಲ್ಲನ ; and ಉ in Kannada ಕಿಪುಡು, ಗುಜ್ಜು.



Derivative nouns are formed in these languages by adding what are known as *taddhita* suffixes to nominal themes. Very few suffixes are common to the three languages and even of these the meaning is not always quite the same:

ಗುಣವಾಕ್ ಗುಣವಂಶಂ ಗುಣವಂತುಂಡು ; ಗುಣಮುಳ್ಳಾ ಗುಣಮುಳ್ಳಂ ; ಪೆರುಮೈಯುಡೈಯಾಕ್ ಪೆರ್ಮಯೊಡೆಯಂ ; ಅಟಮಟಿಗ್ ಅಟಮಟಿಗ್ಡು, ಮಾವಟಿಗ್ ಮಾವಟಿಗ್ಡು ; ಪಣಕ್ಕಾರ್ ಹಣಗಾಣಂ ; ಅಟಗಾಣ ಅಟಕಾಡು ; ತಿಂಡಿಪೊತ ತಿಂಡಿಪೊತು ; ಮುಕ್ಕಿಡಿ ಮೂಕೊಪ್ ; ಕುಟ್ಟಿವಾಳಿ ; ಮಡಿವಳ, ಕಲ್ಲಾಯ್, ಅಲರಿಚ, ಲಂಚಂಗುಳಿ ; ವಗಲಾಡು, ಕೊಂಡಕಾಡು, ಚಿಟುತುಕ ; ಪಾಂಬಾಟ್ಟಿ ಪಾವಡಿಗಂ ಪಾಮುಲವಾಡು.

Under the heading euphonic combination (p. 60) a few compound nouns which are similar in two or three of the Dravidian languages of Southern India have already been given. A few more may be added here:

ಶಂದಾಮರೈ ಕಂದಾವರೆ ಕಂದಾಮರ ; ಶಂಗಣ್ಣ ಕೆಂಗಣ್ಣಂ ; ಶಾರೈ ಪ್ಪಾಂಬು ಕೇರೆಹಾವು ; ಪೆರಿಯಮಗ್ ಪಿರಿಯಮಗಂ ; ಕರುಂಗುದಿರೈ ಕರ್ಗುದುರೆ ; ಅರಮನೈ ಅರಮನೆ ; ಮಲ್ಲಗೈನನೈ ಮಲ್ಲಗೆನನೆ ; ಇಟಿಯುಂಪೊಪು ಇಟಿಯುಂಬೊಪ್ಪು ; ಮಾಂಗಾಯ್ ಮಾಂಗಾಯ್ ; ಕೆಪ್ಪಿನೀರ್ ಚೆಪ್ಪುನೀರು ; ಮೇಂಗಾರ್ ಮೀಂಗಾಲು ; ಪೆಡದರೆ ಪೆಡತಲ ; ಮೂಜಗಂಗಳ್ ಮೂಜ್ಜಗೆ ಮುಲು ; ಡೆಳ್ಳುದುರೆ ತೆಲ್ಲಗುಟ್ಟಿಮು ; ಮುಕ್ಕಣ್ಣಂ ಮುಕ್ಕಂಟಿ ; ಸಾಸಿರಗಣ್ಣಂ ವೇಗಂಟಿ ; ಚಿಗುರುದುಟಿ ಚಿಗುರುಪೋವಿ ; ಕೈದಾವರೆ ಕೇಲುದಮ್ಮಿ ; ತೆಂಬೆರಲ್ ತೆಮ್ಮೆರ.

In Tamil there is a peculiar class of elliptical compounds known as *ಅನ್ನೊಟಿತ್ತೈ* in which certain words are to be understood which is not usual in the other languages. Compounds like *ಪುಲ್ಲಡಿ ಮಲ್ಲಡಿ, ಪವಳವಾಯ್ ಪವಳವಾಯ್, ಪಿಪ್ಪಿನುದರ್ ಪೆಪ್ಪಿನೊಸರ್, ಪೊಪ್ಪುಡಿ ಪೊಂಬಳಿ* mean in Kannada a soft foot, a coral-like lip, a crescent-like forehead and a gold bracelet, respectively, but in Tamil they convey the additional sense of a possessor of these things, especially a woman—possessor of soft or delicate feet, etc. Similar forms are rarely met with in Kannada—*ಕಿತ್ತಡಿ* (an ascetic), *ದಿವ್ಯಡಿ* (Siva) and *ಕಲ್ಲೆರ್* (a hard-hearted person) ಕರುಣಂ ಗೆಟ್ಟಾಕೆ ಕೈಕೆ ಕಲ್ಲೆರ್ಯಕ್ಕುಂ (*Pampa-Rāmāyana*, vi 164.)

## CHAPTER IV

Vocabulary. *Dēśya*. *Tatsama* and *Tadbhava*. *Tatbhava* from *Prākṛit* and *Tamil*. *Anyadēśya*. Portuguese, Persian, *Maharāthi*, Arabic, *Hindustāni*, English. *Sanskrit* *Avyayas*. Northern and Southern Schools in *Kannāḍa*. R. Raghunatha Rao's Plea of *Telugu* influence. Controversy with him on three suggested points. Stages of the *Kannāḍa* Language. Primitive Old *Kannāḍa*. *Haḷagannāḍa* or Old *Kannāḍa*. Mediæval *Kannāḍa*. Modern *Kannāḍa*. Forms once condemned have become current. Explanation of *Kēśirāja's* 60th *Sūtra*.

### VOCABULARY.

The vocabularies of *Tamil*, *Kannāḍa* and *Telugu* contain chiefly four classes of words, namely, *tatsama*, pure *Sanskrit* words; *tadbhava*, *Sanskrit* words changed to suit the languages; *dēśya*, indigenous words; and *anyadēśya*, foreign words. The *dēśya* class alone represents the pure essential part of these languages as distinguished from what has been imported from *Sanskrit* or other sources. A large number of words in the three languages is almost identical, but many are often so disguised by peculiarities of inflection and dialectic changes that not one entire sentence in one of the languages is intelligible to those who are acquainted with only one of the other two. If a *Tamil*, a *Telugu*, a *Kannāḍiga* and a *Malayāli* happen to travel together in a Railway train, the speech of one will not be understood by any of the other three. They will have to make gestures to make themselves mutually intelligible. To illustrate this, a funny sentence is given, namely, ಈ ಮೂಲ ಅಟ್ಟ ಪಡಿಯುಣ್ಣೆ, said to have been spoken by a *Telugu* man, a stranger, on entering into a *Tamil* man's house. The meaning of the sentence in *Telugu* is "Let this bundle lie over there." The *Tamil* man interpreted it thus: 'Flies, bugs, leeches and a measure



of ticks'—and thinking that the bundle contained all this, threw it away at once to the surprise and consternation of the stranger. And yet the ancestors of these people speaking the four languages, most probably spoke one and the same language.

As we have already dealt in a way with verbal roots, adjectives and numerals which are either identical or similar in the three languages, we may now confine our attention to nouns only. It may be stated that the number of Kannada nouns which are identical with those in Tamil are far greater than those in Telugu. The same remark also applies to Kannada nouns whose identity is disguised by dialectic and other changes. Below are given some examples of nouns which are common either to all the three languages or to only any two of them, as well as of those which have undergone change in one or two languages :

Examples of nouns common to Tamil, Kannada and Telugu :—

ಅಚ್ಚು, ಅಡ್ಡಿ, ಅಂಬು, ಅವಗಡಂ, ಅಪರಂಜಿ, ಉಪ್ಪು, ಕತ್ತಿ, ಕಪ್ಪಂ, ಕುಚ್ಚು, ಗಂಜಿ, ಚಟ್ಟಂ, ತೆಪ್ಪಂ, ತುಂಡು, ತಗದು, ತಗರು, ತೀರ್ಪು, ತೊಟ್ಟಿ, ದಂಡು, ದಿಡ್ಡಿ, ನೂಲು, ನಾಡು, ಪುರುಡು, ಮಟ್ಟಂ, ಪಲ್ಲಿ, ಬೊಟ್ಟು, ಮಟ್ಟಂ, ಮೂದೇವಿ.

Examples of Tamil nouns and those corresponding to them in Kannada and Telugu that have undergone change :—

Tamil	Kannada	Telugu	Tamil	Kannada	Telugu
ಶಿಹು	ಸೆಹು	ಚೆಹು	ಪುಗೈ	ಪೊಗೈ	ಪೊಗ
ಯಾನೈ	ಆನೆ	ಏನಿಕ,	ಮುದರ್	ಮೊದರ್	ಮೊದಲು
		ಏನುಗು	ಮುಳ್ಳೆ	ಮೊಳ್ಳೆ	ಮೊಲಕ
ಶೋನೈ	ಸೋನ	ಸೋನ	ಕಿಳಿ	ಗಿಳಿ	ಚಲುಕ
ಪಾಂಬು	ಪಾಪು	ಪಾಮು	ವಾಡಿಕೈ	ವಾಡಿಕೆ	ವಾಡುಕ
ಅಟ್ಟಿ	ಅಟ್ಟೆ	ಅಟ್ಟ	ಅಪ್ಪಿ	ಅಪ್ಪ	ಅಯಿ
ಇಣ್ಣಿ	ಎಣ್ಣೆ	ಎನ	ವಾಯಿರ್	ಬಾಗಿರ್	ವಾಕಿಲ
ತಿರೈ	ತೆರೆ	ತೆರ	ಕೈಯದು	ಕೈದು	ಕೈದುಪು
ನಿಜರ್	ನೆಜರ್	ನೀಡ	ಪಿಳ್ಳೆ	ಪಿಳ್ಳೆ	ಪಿಲ್ಲ
ಉರರ್	ಒರರ್	ರೋಲು	ಕೂಡೈ	ಗೂಡೆ	ಗೂಡ

Tamil	Kannada	Telugu	Tamil	Kannada	Telugu
ಮಡಂದೈ	ಮಡದಿ	ಮಡಂ ತಿ	ಮೂಕ್ಕು	ಮೂಗು	ಮುಕ್ಕು
ವೆದಿರ್	ಬಿದಿರ್	ವೆದುರು	ಶರಿ	ಸರಿ	ಸರೆ
ವಲೈ	ಬಲೆ	ವಲ	ಕೈ	ಕೆಯ್	ಚೇಯಿ
ತಂಬಿ	ತಮ್ಮಂ	ತಮ್ಮಡು	ನೋನ್ನು	ನೋಂಪಿ	ನೋಮು
ಪಾಟ್ಟು	ಹಾಡು	ಪಾಟ	ಎರುದು	ಎಟ್ಟು	ಎದ್ದು
ಉಡೈಮೈ	ಒಡಮೆ	ಒಡಮಿ	ಕಾರ್	ಗಾಳಿ	ಗಾಲಿ
ಉಡಲ್	ಒಡಲ್	ಒಡಲು	ವೆಳ್ಳಿ	ಬೆಳ್ಳಿ	ವೆಂಡಿ
ಪೊಯ್ದು	ಪೊಯ್	ಪೊಯ್ದು	ಮರುಂದು	ಮರ್ದು	ಮಂದು
ಪೆಯರ್	ಪೆಸರ್	ಪೇರು	ಎಚ್ಚಿಲ್	ಎಂಜಲ್	ಎಂಗಿಲಿ

Examples of nouns common to Tamil and Telugu :—

Tamil	Telugu	Tamil	Telugu	Tamil	Telugu
ಪೆರುಗು	ಪೆರುಗು	ಅಪ್ಪಂ	ಅಪ್ಪಮು	ನೆಯ್	ನೆಯು
ಕೂಂಡು	ಗೂಂಡು	ಆ	ಆಪು	ತಾಯ್	ತಾಯಿ
ನೀಳು	ನೀಳು	ಕೊಪ್ಪು	ಕೊಪ್ಪು	ತೆರು	ತೆರುಪು
ವಿತ್ತು	ವಿತ್ತು	ಅಪ್ಪಳಂ	ಅಪ್ಪಳಮು	ತಲ್ಲ	ತಲ್ಲಿ

Examples of Tamil nouns and those corresponding to them in Telugu that have undergone change :—

Tamil	Telugu	Tamil	Telugu
ಪುಟು	ಪುರುಗು	ಪನ್ನಿ	ಪಂದಿ
ಕೂಬ್	ಕೂಡು	ಅಂಗಾಡಿ	ಅಂಗಡಿ
ವಿಟುಂಗು	ಮ್ವಿಂಗು	ಪಣಿ	ಪನಿ
ಇರುಂಬು	ಇನಮು	ಕಪ್ಪಲ್	ಕಪ್ಪಲಿ
ಅಗಪ್ಪೈ	ಅಗಪ	ಅರ್ವಂ	ಅರುವಮು
ತಿತ್ತಿಪ್ಪು	ತಿರೆಪು	ತುಣುಕ್ಕು	ತುನುಕ
ತೆಂಗು	ತೆಂಕಾಯ	ತಟ್ಟು	ತಟ್ಟ
ತಳಿರ್	ತಲಿರು	ಅಡೈಯಾಳಂ	ಅಡಿಯಾಲಮು
ನನ್ನೈ	ನನ	ನಂಜೈ	ನಂಜ
ನೆರುಪ್ಪು	ನಿಪ್ಪು	ಅಂಡು	ಏಡು
ತಿಂಡಿ	ತಿಂಡಿ	ಕೊಂಬು	ಕೊಮ್ಮ
ತಮುಕ್ಕು	ಟಮುಕು	ತಿಣ್ಣೈ	ತಿನ್ನೈ
ತೆರಿವೈ	ತೆರಿವ	ಅಕ್ಕರೈ	ಅಕ್ಕರ
ಅಡಿಮೈ	ಅಡಿಮೆ	ವಿಂದೈ	ವಿಂತೆ
		ಶಡಿ	ಚಿಟ್ಟು

Examples of nouns common to Kannada and Telugu :—

ಪಂದಿ, ತೊಡಪು, ದಾರಿ, ನೆಂಟು, ನುಡಿ, ಅಂಚು, ಅಂಬಲಿ, ಅಡುಟು,

ಕೊಂಡೆ, ರವಳೆ, ರೀವಿ, ರಾವು, ಡೊಂಕು, ಡೋಲು, ತಟವಟ, ಡಾಲು, ಟಕ್ಕು, ಅಲಪು, ಒಂಟಿ, ತರವಾರಿ, ತಪುಡು, ಕೋತಿ, ಅಡ್ಡ, ಅಪ್ಪಟ, ಅಪ್ಪಟ್ಟಿ, ಅನು, ಗುಡಿಸೆ, ಅಸ್ತಿಭಾರ, ದಟ್ಟಿ, ದಾರ, ದಪ್ಪ, ದೊಡ್ಡ, ನಗೆ, ನಿಚ್ಚಲು, ಕತ್ತಳಂ,\* ನಿಕ್ಕುವಂ, ನೆಮ್ಮದಿ, ಅಂದಂ, ಕತಂ, ತೇಮಂ, ಗಾಣಂ (singer).

Examples of Kannada nouns and those corresponding to them in Telugu that have undergone change :—

Kannada	Telugu	Kannada	Telugu
ದಾಟಿ	ದಾಡಿ	ಬಿದಿರ್	ವೆದುರು
ದೊಣೆ	ದೊನ	ತಕ್ಕಡಿ	ತಕ್ಕಡ
ನವಿರ್	ನಮಿಲ	ತೊಳೆ	ತೊಲ
ದಬ್ಬಳ	ದಬ್ಬನಮು	ಅಡ್ಡಣ	ಅಡ್ಡನ
ಡಿಂಗರಿಗಂ	ಡಿಂಗರುಂಡು	ಅಳವಿ	ಅಲವಿ
ತೆಪುಲು	ತೆಗುಲು	ತಡಿಕೆ	ತಡಕ
ಅಡ್ಡಾಯ್ತು	ಅಡಿದಮು	ಅಂಗುಳ್	ಅಂಗಿಲ
ಅಪ್ಪಮೆ	ಅರಕಮು	ತಂಬಿಗೆ	ತಂಬುಗ
ನೆಲ	ನೇಲ	ತುದಿ	ತುದ
ಅಂಕೆ	ಅಂಕ	ಅಕಡೆ	ಅಕ್ಕಡ
ತವಕಂ	ತವಕಮು	ಅದವಲರ್	ಅದವದ
ಅಂದುಗೆ	ಅಂದಿಯ	ಕುತ್ತಿಗೆ	ಕುತ್ತಿಕ
ಅಗ್ಗ	ಅಗ್ಗುವ	ಗೊಣವಿ	ಕೊಣವಿ
ತೊಟ್ಟಿಲ್	ತೊಟ್ಟಿಲ	ಕಡಮೆ	ಕಡಮ

Examples of nouns common to Tamil and Kannada :—

ಫುಲು, ಕೂಲ್, ಪಾಲ್, ತೆಂಗು, ತೊಟ್ಟಿಲ್, ಪರರ್, ತಳಿರ್, ನಾಣ್, ಪೀಲಿ, ಈಡು, ಕದಿರ್, ಪಡೆಗು, ಒಪ್ಪಂ, ಮುನ್ನಿರ್, ನಂಜು, ಪಳ್ಳಿ, ಅಣ್ಣ, \*

\* This word is common in Telugu in the sense of an armour. It also occurs rarely in Kannada in the same sense. The following stanza found in Sravana Belgola inscription No. 117 of A. D. 1123 contains the word :—

ಬಳಯು ತರಂ ಬಯಲು ವಲತಾಂತರಂಗಿದಿರಾಗಿ ತಾಗಿ ಸಂ |  
ಚಳಿಸೆ ಪಳಂಟಿ ತೊಳ್ಳ ವಿನೋದಿಸಿ ಮಯ್ಯಗೆಯಾದದೂನಮಂ ||  
ಕಳೆಯದೆ ನಿಂದ ಕರ್ಬುನದ ಕರ್ಗಿದ ಸಿಪ್ಪಿನಮರ್ಕಪತ್ತೆ ಪ್ಪ |  
ತ್ತೊಳಮೆನಿಸಿತ್ತು ಪುತ್ತಡರ್ದ ಮಯ್ಯ ಮಳಂ ಮಳಧಾರಿದೇವರಾ ||

As he became the natural enemy of the flower-arrowed (cupid) who harasses (even) the strong, having engaged him in a terrific fight, vanquished and chased him away, the dirt on Maladhāridēva's body, which was overgrown with an anthill, looked as if it were a close-fitting armour of black iron that had not yet been doffed.

ಮೆಯ್, ಮಾಡಂ, ಮಣ್, ತಾಯ್, ತೇರ್, ಅಡಿ, ಮುಡಿ, ಕಾಡು, ಪನಿ, ಅರುಂಬು, ಕಣ್, ತೋಲ್, ಪಾರ್, ಪುಳಿ, ಕೊಡಿ, ಅಡು, ಕೇಡು, ತೊಂಗಲ್, ನೆಯ್, ಪೆಣ್, ಪುಲ್, ಪೂ, ಮುಗಿಲ್, ಅರಿಶನಂ, ಎಳ್, ತಿಂಗಳ್, ಕಡೆ, ಕಡಲ್, ಕಂಬು, ಕರಗಂ, ಕಲ್, ಕಳಂ, ನೀರ್, ಕಣ್ಣಿ, ಕರಡಿ, ಕಲಿ, ಕಳಪು, ಕತ್ತು, ಕಂದು, ಕಂಬಿ, ಕರಿ, ಕಳ್ಳಿ, ಅಗಲಂ, ನೀಳಂ, ಆಟಂ, ಆಲರ್, ಅಗಟ್, ಅಂಗೈ, ಪೋರ್, ಕಾರ್, ಅಚ್ಚುಕಟ್ಟು, ಅತ್ತಿ, ಅಪ್ಪಣ್, ಅಂಬಾರಂ, ಅಂಬಾರಿ, ಅಮ್ಮಣ್, ಮದಿಲ್, ಕೊತ್ತಳಂ, ಅಳಪು, ಅಜಿಂ, ಅನ್ನಣ್, ತಗರಂ, ಪಗಲ್, ಇರುಳ್, ಕಿಚ್ಚು, ನಚ್ಚು, ತೊಡರ್, ಪಡಿ, ಪಿಡಿ, ಪಣಂ, ಅಣ್, ಪುಣ್, ಪಿಂಡಿ, ಚೆಂಡು, ಪದಂ, ಕದಪು, ತಿಪ್ಪಿ, ಕಂಬು ಕೊಂಬು, ಚೆಂಬು, ತುಮ್ಮಲ್, ಪಯಿರ್, ಪಾಡು, ಅರುಗು, ಕರುಳ್, ಕುರುಳ್, ಮರುಳ್, ಅಲಗು, ಮಲರ್, ಪೊಲಂ, ಪುಲಿ, ನೆಲ್, ಪರ್, ಪುರ್ ನವಿರ್, ಅಬಲ್, ಕಬನಿ, ಕುಟಿ, ಪಟಿ, ಪಟುವಂ, ಪುಳಿ, ಮುಳ್, ಕಳ್, ಪಳ್ಳಂ, ಕಳ್ಳಿ, ಕೊಳ್ಳಿ, ನಳ್ಳಿ, ಮುಳ್ಳಿ, ಅಜುಪು, ಪೋ, ಮೇಟಿ, ಆಟು, ಮಾಡಂ, ಇತ್ಯಾದಿ.

Examples of Tamil nouns and those corresponding to them in Kannada that have undergone change.—

Tamil	Kannada	Tamil	Kannada
ಕೊಕ್ಕು	ಕುಕ್ಕು	ಶಿಲ	ಕೆಲ
ಎಣ್ಣೆಯ್	ಎಣ್ಣೆ	ಉಡಂಬು	ಒಡಂಬಿ
ವಲಂ	ಬಲ	ಅರುವಿ	ಅರ್ಬಿ
ಶೋಲ್	ಸೋಲ್	ಕಣ್ಣಡಿ	ಕನ್ನಡಿ
ವಜುದು	ಬಜುದು	ಕಟವೈ	ಕಟಪು
ಮುಟ್ಟುಗೈ	ಮುತ್ತಿಗೆ	ಕಟ್ಟು	ಕಟ್ಟೆ
ಕುಟ್ಟಂ	ಕುತ್ತಂ	ಪೊಟ್ಟು	ಪೊಟ್ಟೆ
ನೆಟ್ಟು	ನೆತ್ತಿ	ಶಾಟು	ಸಾಟು
ಪುಟ್ಟು	ಪುತ್ತು	ಶೇಟು	ಕೆಸಟು
ಮಟ್ಟು	ಮತ್ತು	ಶೂಟ್ಟು	ಸೂಟ್ಟೆ
ಕಯಿನಿ	ಕೈನೆ	ಮನ್ನೈ	ಮನೆ
ಎಲಮಿಚ್ಚೈ	ಇಲಮಿಂಚಿ	ವಾಣ್	ಬಾಣ್
ಕೈಯಡೈ	ಕೆಯ್ಯಡೆ	ಮಪ್ಪು	ಮಪ್
ಕುಟಡು	ಕೊಟಡು	ವಾಡೈ	ಬಾಡೆ
ಪುಗರ್	ಪುಗರ್	ವಟ್ಟಂ	ಬಟ್ಟು
ವಿಳಕ್ಕು	ಬಿಳಕ್ಕು	ವಟ್ಟಲ್	ಬಟ್ಟಲ್
ಪರುತ್ತಿ	ಪಚ್ಚಿ	ವಂಡು	ಬೆಂಡು
ಮಾಗಾಣಂ	ಮಾಗಣ್	ಕೊಂಡೈ	ಕೊಂಡೆ
ತಿಟ್ಟಿ	ತಿಂಡಿ	ಶಂಬಳಂ	ಸಂಬಳಂ
ಎರುಮೈ	ಎರ್ಮ	ಇದಡ್	ಎಸಡ್
ಕರುಂಬೋ	ಕರ್ಮೋ	ತಿನೈ	ತೆನೆ
ವರಗು	ಬರಗು	ಕಪ್ಪು	ಕಟು

Tamil	Kannada	Tamil	Kannada
ಪಯಿಲು	ಬಸಿಲು	ಪೊರುಳ್	ಪುರುಳ್
ತಂಗು	ತಂಗೆ	ಶಟ್ಟುವಂ	ನಟ್ಟುಗ
ವೇಲ	ಬೇಲ	ತಂದೈ	ತಂದೆ
ವೇಡರ್	ಬೇಡರ್	ಅಲಪ್ಪು	ಅಲಪ್ಪು
ಕುದಿರೈ	ಕುದುರೆ	ಕಡುಡೈ	ಕಡೆ
ಪೈದರ್	ಪೈದಂ	ನಿಲರ್	ನಿಲರ್
ಪೆಟ್ಟೈ	ಹೇಚೆ	ನಿಲೈ	ನಿಲೆ
ಪುನರ್	ಪೊನರ್	ನುರೈ	ನೊರೆ
ಶೇಗು	ಚೇಗು	ಮುಗೈ	ಮೊಗೆ
ವಡಕ್ಕು	ಬಡಗು	ಕುಡಂ	ಕೊಡಂ
ತೇಕ್ಕು	ತೇಗು	ಶುಡರ್	ಸೊಡರ್
ಮರುಂಗುರ್	ಮಗುರ್	ಕಡಲೈ	ಕಡಲೆ
ಕರುಂಬು	ಕರ್ಬು	ಕುಡೈ	ಕೊಡೆ
ಕುತ್ತು	ಕತ್ತು	ಕೊಡೈ	ಕೊಡೆ
ಉಬುಂದು	ಉರ್ದು	ಒಟ್ಟೈ	ಒಂಟೆ
ಮಾಮ್	ಮಾವಂ	ಮುಟ್ಟೈ	ಮೊಟ್ಟೆ
ವಾಯ್ಕ್ಕಾರ್	ಬಾಯ್ಕ್ಕಾರ್	ಪಡೈ	ಪಡೆ
ಶಾಮೈ	ಸಾಮೆ	ತಟ್ಟು	ತಟ್ಟೆ
ಮುರುಂಗೈ	ನುಗೈ	ನಿಣಂ	ನೆಣಂ
ಮಯಿಲ್	ನವಿಲ್	ಪಿಣಂ	ಪೆಣಂ
ಮುಬಂಗಾರ್	ಮೊಣಕಾರ್	ಶಿದಲೈ	ಗಿದಲ್
ವಲಂಬುರಿ	ಬಲಮುರಿ	ಮುದಲೈ	ಮೊಸಳೆ
ಪಟುವಿ	ಹಟುವಿ	ನುದಲ್	ನೊಸರ್
ಕುರುಂಬೈ	ಕುರುಬೆ	ಮುದಲ್	ಮೊದರ್
ಪುನ್ನೈ	ಹೊನ್ನೆ	ವೆದಿರ್	ಬಿದಿರ್
ಅಡೈಕ್ಕಾಯ್	ಅಡಕೆ	ಎದಿರ್	ಇದಿರ್
ಕಾರ್ಕ್ಕಾಯ್	ಕಾರ್ಕ್ಕೈ	ಪೊದು	ಪುದು
ಅಡೈಪ್ಪಂ	ಹಡಪಂ	ಮೂಪ್ಪು	ಮುಪ್ಪು
ಅಣ್ಣಿರ್	ಅಳ್ಳಿರ್	ವದುಪ್ಪು	ವದುವೆ
ವಿರರ್	ಬೆರರ್	ವಿತ್ತು	ಬಿತ್ತು
ಅಣ್ಣ	ಅಣ್ಣಂ	ತೊತ್ತು	ತೊಟ್ಟು
ಅರಕ್ಕು	ಅರೆಗು	ಇಮ್ಮೈ	ಎವೆ
ಅರುತ್ತಿ	ಅಟ್ಟಿ	ಪೆಯರ್	ಪೆನರ್
ಅಟುವೈ	ಅಟುವೆ	ವಯರ್	ಬಯರ್
ಉಡರ್	ಓಡರ್	ಉಯಿರ್	ಉಸಿರ್
ಉಗಿರ್	ಉಗುರ್	ವೆಯರ್	ಬಿಸಿರ್
ಪಗೈ	ಪಗೆ	ಇರಲೈ	ಎರಲೆ
ವಿಕ್ಕುರ್	ಬಿಕ್ಕುಳ್	ಉರರ್	ಒರರ್



Tamil	Kannada	Tamil	Kannada
ಪೂರಿ	ಪುರಿ	ವಟಿ	ಬಟಿ
ವರಿಶೈ	ವರಿಸ	ತಡೈ	ತಡ
ಇರೈ	ಎರೆ	ಕಿಳಿ	ಗಿಳಿ
ಎಲಿ	ಇಲಿ	ವೆಲ್ಲಂ	ಬೆಲ್ಲಂ
ಕುಲೈ	ಗೊಲೆ	ತಿಱಂ	ತೆಱಂ
ಕೊಲೈ	ಕೊಲೆ	ಶಿಱುತ್ತೈ	ಚಿಱುತೆ
ವಲೈ	ಬಲೆ	ನನಪು	ನನಸು
ವಿರ್	ಬಿರ್	ಕಡುವೆ	ಗಡವಂ
ಕವಣೈ	ಕವಣ	ಕಱಂಜು	ಕಣಜ
ತುಟಿ	ತುಟಿ	ಕನ್ನಂ	ಕೆನ್ನೆ
ಇಳಮೈ	ಎಳವೆ	ಕವಡಿ	ಕವಡೆ
ಅಳೈ	ಅಳೆ	ಕುಳಂಬು	ಕೊಳಗು
ವೆಳೈ	ಬೆಳೆ	ವೆಳ್ಳಂ	ಬೆಳ್ಳಂ
ಮುಱಂ	ಮೊಱಂ	ಶಿಱಪ್ಪು	ಚಿಱಪ್ಪು
ಶಿಱೈ	ಸೆಱೆ	ಶಿಱುದು	ಕಿಱುದು
ಶೋಱಂ	ಬೋಱಂ	ಕನಪು	ಕನಸು
ಕಱುಪ್ಪು	ಕರ್ಪು	ಮಾಡ್ಡಂ	ಮಾತು
ಕಡ್ಡು	ಕಂದು	ತಾಡೈ	ತಾಡ
ಕುಳಂ	ಕೊಳಂ	ಪುನ್ನೈ	ಪೊನ್ನೆ
ತುಣೈ	ತೊಣೆ	ಎರಾಳಂ	ಹೇರಳ
ಪಿಳ್ಳೈ	ಪಿಳ್ಳೆ	ಈಚ್ಚು	ಈಚಲು
ಮುಱವಿ	ಮುಱವೆ	ನಾಂಜಿರ್	ನೇಗಿರ್
ಪಿಱುತ್ತೈ	ಪೆಱೆ	ತೊಱುತ್ತೈ	ತೊಱು
ನಾಡ್ಡಂ	ನಾತಂ		

ಇತ್ಯಾದಿ

These examples in Tamil and Kannada which contain only a selection of words may be enlarged to any extent. To give all the words that are more or less identical in the two languages, we shall have to transcribe more than a half of the words given in the dictionaries of these tongues.

All the four Dravidian languages of Southern India have Sanskrit words, both pure (tatsama) and corrupt (tadbhava) introduced into their vocabularies to a smaller or greater extent. The number of Sanskrit words in Tamil is comparatively small, in Kannada and Telugu rather



large and in Malayālam the largest. With regard to Tamil, it is stated that the works of Avvai—*Āttisūdi*, etc., contain altogether 2,020 words, of which only 156 are Sanskrit. Similarly, the Tamil work *Narundogai* which contains 600 words in all has only 24 Sanskrit words. As we go back, Tamil literature shows an increase in the number of Tamil words with a proportionate decrease in Sanskrit words. In Telugu, according to the *Śabdaratnākara* there are 12,337 dēśya words, 14,814 tatsama words and 2,000 tadbhava words. No such enumeration is found in any Kannaḍa work, though there is a large number of Sanskrit words in that language. According to Caldwell the reason why the amount of Sanskrit employed in the other Dravidian languages is considerably larger than in Tamil and the use of it has acquired more of the character of a necessity is because the literatures of those languages have chiefly been cultivated by Brāhmaṇas, while in Tamil few Brāhmaṇas have written anything worthy of preservation. This is true only to a limited extent with regard to Kannaḍa, and probably Telugu also. We know for a fact that the best works in Kannaḍa have been written not by Brāhmaṇas but by Jainas who were strong advocates of purism in the use of Kannaḍa. That it is possible to avoid the use of Sanskrit in Kannaḍa and Telugu is evidenced by the existence in those languages of works such as the *Kabbigarakāva* of Āṇḍayya and the *Yayūticaritra* of Ponnagaṇṭi Telaganna which contain no pure Sanskrit words though tadbhavas are freely admitted. It is, however, a well-known fact that almost all the early Jaina authors in Kannaḍa were good Sanskrit scholars and consequently, notwithstanding their advocacy of purism in the use of Kannaḍa, some Sanskrit words must have entered into the Kannaḍa vocabulary. Besides, Kannaḍa, in common with Tamil, has borrowed Sanskrit words to express abstract ideas of philosophy, science and religion. Later writers in all these languages have unhesitatingly introduced a pretty large number of Sanskrit words, though, in most cases,

there was no necessity for doing so. These circumstances account for the presence of a large number of Sanskrit words in these languages, though the words in Kannaḍa and Telugu may be somewhat in excess of those in Tamil.

The occurrence of a large number of Sanskrit words in the Dravidian languages of Southern India led some orientalists of a former generation, such as Colebrooke, Carey, Wilkins and others, to believe that these languages were derived from Sanskrit. But, now, such notions are known to be without any foundation. These orientalists did not, as Caldwell says, take into account the material circumstance that the pronouns and numerals of the Dravidian languages, their verbal and nominal inflections, and the syntactic arrangement of their words—everything, in short, which constitutes the living spirit of a language—were originally and radically different from Sanskrit. Besides, the grammatical structure and system of sounds in Sanskrit and the Dravidian languages are, as was amply shown before, essentially different. Further, it will be quite difficult to account for the existence of indigenous words which constitute the major portion of the vocabulary of each one of these languages. There is, moreover, the circumstance that the uncultivated Dravidian dialects contain scarcely any Sanskrit words.

The first word *tat* in the compounds *tatsama* and *tadbhava* is taken in Kannaḍa grammars to denote Sanskrit, but in Telugu it is taken to denote Prākṛit also. So we have four classes of words: *Samskrita-sama*, *Samskrita-bhava*, *Prākṛita-sama* and *Prākṛita-bhava*. And this classification is desirable since there are instances of words which it is easier to derive from Prākṛit than from Sanskrit. Thus, the Kannaḍa word ಕೌಂ (Telugu కౌము) may be more easily derived from the Prākṛit कौमुद than from the Sanskrit कौमुद. I give below a few other instances of words in their Sanskrit, Prākṛit and Kannaḍa forms where it will be clearly seen that the Kannaḍa form is more alike the

Prākṛit than the Sanskrit form, and may therefore be called Prākṛita-bhava:—

ದಂಷ್ಠ್ರಾ	ದಾಡಾ	ದಾಡೆ	ಶೀಕರಃ	ಸೀಧರೋ	ಸೀವರಂ
ಶ್ರೀಃ	ಸಿರೀ	ಸಿರಿ	ಕಟುಃ	ಕಾರೋ	ಕಾರಂ
ವೃತ್ತಂ	ವಟ್ಟಂ	ಬಟ್ಟ	ವೈದ್ಯಃ	ವೇಜೋ	ಬೆಜ್ಜಂ
ಕೂರ್ಪಾಸಃ	ಕುಪ್ಪಿನೋ	ಕುಪ್ಪನಂ	ರಾಜ್ಞೇ	ರಾಣೇ	ರಾಣಿ
ನಿರುರಃ	ಓಜ್ವರೋ	ಓಜ್ವರಂ	ಶ್ರದ್ಧಾ	ನಡ್ಧಾ	ನಡೆ
ಪರ್ಯಂತಃ	ಪಲ್ಲಜೋ	ಪಲ್ಲಟಂ	ವಿಜ್ಞಾನಂ	ವಿಣ್ಣಾಣಂ	ಬಿನ್ನಾಣಂ
ಶಿಥಿಲಃ	ನಡಿರೋ	ನಡಿಲ	ಹರಿದ್ರಾ	ಹಲದ್ರಾ	ಹಳದಿ
ಸ್ಥೂಲಃ	ಥೋರೋ	ತೋರ	ಶಯ್ಯಾ	ನಜ್ಜಾ	ಸೆಜ್ಜೆ
ಅಳಃ	ಓಳೀ	ಓಳಿ	ಅಜ್ಞಾ	ಅಣಾ	ಅಣೆ
ಸ್ತುಪಾ	ಸುಸಾ	ಸೊಸೆ	ಜ್ಯೋತಸ್ಸಾ	ಜೊಣ್ಣಾ	ಜೊನ್ನಂ
ನಾಕ್ಷೀ	ಸಕ್ಪೀ	ಸಕ್ಪಿ	ತ್ವರಿತಂ	ತುರಿತಂ	ತುರಿಹಂ
ವಿದ್ಯಾ	ವಿಜ್ಞಾ	ಬಿಜ್ಜೆ	ಸಿಂಹಃ	ಸಿಂಘೋ	ಸಿಂಗಂ
ಯಜ್ಞಃ	ಜಣೋ	ಜನ್ನಂ	ಮಲಿನಂ	ಮಜ್ಜಲಂ	ಮಯಿಲಿ
ಅಂತಃಪುರಂ	ಅಂತೆಗುರಂ	ಅಂತಪುರಂ	ಪೃಥಿವೀ	ಪುಥಮೀ	ಪುಡವಿ
ತೀಕ್ಷ್ಣಂ	ತಿಬ್ಬಂ	ತಿಕ್ಕಂ	ಅಗ್ನಿಃ	ಅಗ್ಗೀ	ಅಗ್ಗಿ
ವಿದ್ಯುತ್	ವಿಜ್ಜು	ಬಿಜ್ಜು	ಮೂರ್ಖಃ	ಮುರುಹೋ	ಮುರುವಂ

There are again other words which are identical with the Prākṛit forms and may consequently be styled Prākṛita-sama. The following are a few instances of such words:—

ನಿಭ	ನೆಪ	ನೆಪ	ವಕ್ರ	ವಂಕ	ವಂಕ
ಸ್ನೇಹ	ನೇಹ	ನೇಹ	ಸದೃಶ	ಸರಿಸ	ಸರಿಸ
ಪ್ರತಿ	ಪಡಿ	ಪಡಿ	ಕಾರ್ಯ	ಕಜ್ಜ	ಕಜ್ಜ
ಸ್ಥಾನಂ	ತಾಣಂ	ತಾಣಂ	ನೂಪುರಂ	ಣೇಗುರಂ	ನೇಪುರಂ
ವ್ಯಾಖ್ಯಾನಂ	ವಪ್ಪಾಣಂ	ವಕ್ಪಾಣಂ	ಅಂಗಾರ	ಇಂಗಾಲ	ಇಂಗಾಲ

Such tadbhavas are also found in Tamil and Telugu.

In this connection, it may be mentioned that tadbhavas like ಅಚ್ಚುಕಟ್ಟು (ಅತ್ಯುತ್ಕೃಷ್ಟ), ಅಂಬಿಲ (ಅಮ್ಲ), ಗಾವುದ (ಗವ್ಯೂತ), ಪಕ್ಕಾ (ಪಕ್ವ), ಪನುಬೆ (ಪ್ರಸೇವ), ನದ್ದು (ಶಬ್ದ), ಸಕ್ಕರೆ (ಶರ್ಕರಾ) are found in Pāli dictionaries; as also words such as ಒಂಗಿ, ಕಾವರ, ಪೋಟ (ಪೊಟ್ಟಿ) in Hēmachandra's *Dēśināmamālā*.

In the earliest period in Tamil, the changes introduced in adapting Sanskrit words are very

irregular. The following examples will illustrate this point :—

Sanskrit	Tamil	Sanskrit	Tamil
ಶ್ರೀ	ತಿರು	ಪುಷ್ಪ	ಪೂಶಂ
ಶ್ರೇಷ್ಠ	ಕೇಟ್ಟಿ ತಿ	ಮಾರ್ಗಶೀರ್ಷ	ಮಾರ್ಗತಿ
ಶ್ರವಣಂ	ಓಣಂ	ಪೂರ್ವಾಭಾದ್ರಪದಾ	ಪೂರಚ್ಚಾದಿ
ಮೈಶಾಖ	ಮೈಗಾಶಿ	ಆಶ್ಲೇಷಾ	ಆಯಿಲಿಯಂ
ಫಾಲ್ಗುಣ	ಪಂಗುನಿ	ಪೂರ್ವಾ	ಪೂರಂ
ಆಶ್ವಯುಜ	ಐಪ್ಪಶಿ	ಶತಭಿಷಕ್	ಶದಯಂ
ಅನುರಾಧಾ	ಅನುಷಂ	ಮಾಘ	ಮಾಶಿ

It is worthy of notice that ತೈ is derived from ತೈಷ್, ಅಮಿಷ್ಟಂ from ಶ್ರವಿಷ್ಠಾ and ಪುರಚ್ಚಾದಿ from ಪೂರಚ್ಚಪದೀ.

The old tadbhava of ಕರ್ಮ was ಕನ್ಮಂ, its modern equivalent being ಕರುಮಂ which is quite regular. The omission of sibilants is a very common feature in the formation of tadbhavas in Tamil. ಸಂಧ್ಯಾ becomes ಅಂದಿ, ಶ್ರಾವಣ ಅವಣಿ, ಶ್ರಮಣ ಅಮಣ, ನೀನ ಕಯಂ.

Telugu tadbhavas are more or less similar to those in Kannada. Compare ಅನಡ್ಡ with ಅನಡ್ಡೆ, ಅಂದು with ಅಂದಳ, ಬಿನ್ನಪ with ಬಿನ್ನಪ, ಅಗಿಸೆ with ಅಗಿಸೆ, ಅಚ್ಚಿರುಪು with ಅಚ್ಚಿರಿ.

Some tadbhavas in Kannada, such as ಅರಸು, appear to be derived directly from Tamil tadbhavas. The tadbhava of ರಾಜ in Tamil is ಅರಶ or ಅರಶು, where the introduction of the vowel *a* before a word beginning with *ra* is, as stated before, peculiar to Tamil. In Kannada the tadbhava of ರಾಜ would properly be ರಾಯಂ. So the forms ಅರಸಂ, ಅರಸು, ಅರಸಿ are directly derived from the Tamil ಅರಶ, ಅರಶು, ಅರಶಿ. The same appears to be the case with the Kannada words ಏಣಿ, ದಾವು, ನೊಗ, ಬಿನ್ನಪ, ಕೆಲಸ and ಸೊಣಗ. The omission of sibilants being, as stated before, a peculiarity of Tamil, the tadbhava of ಶ್ರೇಣಿ would in that language be ಏಣಿ; but in Kannada it ought to be ಸೇಣಿ. The word in Kannada for a ladder is, however, not ಸೇಣಿ but the Tamil form ಏಣಿ. ನೊಗ is derived from ನುಗಂ, the Tamil tadbhava of ಯುಗ, a yoke. So also is ಬಿನ್ನಪ from ವಿಜ್ಞಪ್ಪಂ.

the tadbhava of ವಿಜ್ಞಾಪ್ಯ. ಕೆಲಸ is derived from ಕಿರಿಶೈ, the Tamil tadbhava of ಕ್ರಿಯಾ. Similarly ದಾವು and ಸೂಣ್ಣ appear to be nearer to the Tamil forms ತಾಂಬು and ಶುಣ್ಣಿ than to the Sanskrit ದಾಮ್ and ಶುನಕ. On the other hand, the Tamil ಅಯಿರಂ is derived from the Kannada tadbhava ಸಾಸಿರಂ.

In Tamil, the aspirate *h* is always omitted; *e.g.*, ಹರಿ ಅರಿ, ಹಿತಂ ಇದಂ, ಹೋಮಂ ಒಮಂ, ಹೇತು ಏತು, ಹಾರಂ ಆರಂ; but in Kannada and Telugu it is rarely that the aspirate is omitted, though Telugu omits it oftener than Kannada; *e.g.*, ಅಡಪಮು, ಅರಿವಾಣಮು, ಅರಿಗೋಲು, ಅರುಸಮು (ಹರ್ಷ), ಅಲುದಿ; ಉಡ್ಡೆ, ಇಂಗು. In the first five examples given from Telugu, Kannada retains the aspirate. ಉಡ್ಡೆ is for ಹುಡ್ಡೆ (ಪೂರ್ವ) and ಇಂಗು for ಹಿಂಗು.

It may be noted that in these languages there are a few cases in which an aspirate is inserted where it is not required; *e.g.*, ಹಾರತಿ for ಆರತಿ (ಆರಾತ್ರೀಕಂ), ಹಗ್ಗಿ for ಅಗ್ಗಿ (ಅಗ್ನಿ).

Anyadēśya or foreign words have largely entered into Kannada and other Dravidian

Anyadēśya.

languages owing to various causes, such as, among others, commercial intercourse, geographical contiguity, administrative control and absence of indigenous words to express new things or ideas. A few of them have become naturalised, *i.e.*, look like native words, *e.g.*, ನೆಂಗೂರಂ or ಲಂಗರ್ for anchor; ಲಾಂದರ್ for lantern; ದುನ್ನು for dress; ತುರುಪು for trump or troop; ಬುರುಸು for brush; ಇಸ್ಕೂಲು for screw; ಸಾಬೂನು for soap; ಗಿಲ್ಲಣು for gilt; ಫಿಝಲು for fiddle. These words may be arranged according to the languages from which they have been borrowed.

Portuguese.—ಅಲಮಾರು, ಜನ್ನರ್, ಪಾದಿರಿ, ಇತ್ಯಾದಿ.

Persian.—ಜಮೀನ್, ದಸ್ತಾವೇಜು, ಬಂದೋಬಸ್ತ್, ಮೇಜಾ, ರಸ್ತ್, ಸರಬರಾಯಿ, ಸಿಪಾರಸ್, ಸಿಬ್ಬಂದಿ, ಸೀಪಾಯಿ, ಸುಮಾರು, ಇತ್ಯಾದಿ.

Mahrāthi.—ಪನ್ನಾಸು, ಬಾಪು, ಭಳರೆ, ಮರು, ಇತ್ಯಾದಿ.

Arabic.—ಅನಾಮತ್ತು, ಅರಾಕ್ಕು, ಅನಾಮಿ, ಇರಾಖಾ, ಕಾಯ್ದಾ,



ಖಜಾನಾ, ಗಾಡಿಖಾನಾ, ಜಪ್ತಿ, ನಾಜೂಕು, ಮಾಮೂಲು, ವಸೂಲ್, ಸಾವಕಾರಿ, ಇತ್ಯಾದಿ.

Hindustani.—ಅಂತಸ್ತು, ಅಂದಾಜು, ಅಂಬಾರಿ, ಅತ್ತರ್, ಅದಬ್ಬು, ಅಮಾನಿ, ಅಮಾನತ್ತು, ಅರ್ಜಿ, ಅವಲ್, ಅಸರ್, ಅಖೈರು, ಇನಾಮು, ಇರಾದೆ, ಇಸವಿ, ಇಸ್ತಿರಿ, ಉಮೇದ್, ಊದಾ, ಕಂತು, ಕಂದಾಯ, ಕಚೇರಿ, ಕಬೂಲು, ಕಮ್ಮಿ, ಕರಾರು, ಕಲಾಯಿ, ಕನಬು, ಕಾಗದ, ಕಾಜಿ, ಕಾನೂನು, ಕಾಮಗಾರಿ, ಕಾರ್ಖಾನ, ಕಿಚ್ಚಡಿ, ಕಿಟಕಿ, ಕಿರಿಕಿರಿ, ಕಿನ್ನು, ಕೀರು, ಕುರಾವಿ, ಕೊಠಡಿ, ಕೊರಾಕ್, ಕೋಟಾ, ಖರೀದಿ, ಖರ್ಚು, ಖಾಲಿ, ಗಡಿಯಾರ, ಗಾಡಿ, ಗಾಬರಿ, ಗಿರಾಕಿ, ಗುಮಾಸ್ತೆ, ಗುಲಾಬಿ, ಗುಲಾಮ, ಗೋಲಿ, ಗಾಸು, ಚಕ್ಕುಬಂದಿ, ಚಡ್ಡಿ, ಚಲಕ್, ಚಾಕರಿ, ಚಾಲಕ್ಕು, ಚಾಳೀಸ, ಚಿರಂಡಿ, ಚಿಲ್ಲರೆ, ಚುಂಗಡಿ, ಚುನಾವಣೆ, ಚೂರಿ, ಜಂತಿ, ಜಮಖಾನ, ಜಮಾಬಂದಿ, ಜಮೆ, ಜಲ್ದಿ, ಜವಾನ, ಜವಾಬು, ಜಹಗೀರು, ಜಾಗ, ಜಾಪ್ತಾ, ಜಾಪ್ತಿ, ಜೋಡು, ಟಪಾಲ್, ಜೋಖಿ, ಠಾಣಾ, ಠೀವಿ, ಡಬ್ಬಿ, ಡವಣಿ, ಡಾಬು, ಡೇರೆ, ಡೋಲಿ, ತಗಾದೆ, ತಂಟೆ, ತಯಾರು, ತರಕಾರಿ, ತಾರೀಕು, ತಾಲೂಕು, ತೊಲಾ, ದಮಾಸ್, ದರ್ಜಿ, ದರ್ಬಾರ್, ದಲ್ಲಾಳಿ, ದಸ್ತು, ದಿನಸು, ದಿವಾನ, ದಿವಾಳಿ, ದುಪಟಾ, ನಗದು, ಪಂಚಾಯಿತಿ, ಪಂಜಾ, ಪಕ್ಕಾ, ಪಲ್ಲಕ್ಕಿ, ಪಸಂದ್, ಪಸಾರೆ, ಪಾರಾ, ಪೂರಾ, ಪೇಷ್ಕಾರ್, ಪೈಸಲ್, ಬಂಗಲಾ, ಬಚಖಾನೆ, ಬಾಕಿ, ಬೇಡಿ, ಮಜಲು, ಮಜೂರಿ, ಮಸಾಲೆ, ಮಸ್ತಿದಿ, ಮಹಡಿ, ಮಿಲಾಯಿ, ಮೈದಾನ, ಮೊಹರಂ, ಮೊಹರು, ರಂಜಾಕ್, ರಜಾ, ರಾಜಿ, ರುಜು, ರುಮಾಲು, ರೂಪಾಯಿ, ರೈತ, ರೊಕ್ಕು, ಲಂಚ, ಲಕ್ಕೋಟಿ, ಲಾಡು, ಲಾಯ, ಲಾಳ, ಲೂಟಿ, ವಕ್ಕಿಲ, ವರದಿ, ವಕಿ, ವಾಪಸು, ವಾಯಿದೆ, ಶಾಬಾಸ್, ಶಾಯಿ, ಶಾಲುಪೆ, ಶಿಲ್ಕು, ಪೋದಾ, ಸರಕಾರ, ಸರಕು, ಸರದಿ, ಸರಾಮು\*, ಸವಾರಿ, ಸಾಮಾನು, ಸೀಸೆ, ಹಕ್ಕು, ಹದ್ದು, ಹಾಜರ್, ಹಾಜಿ, ಹುಂಡಿ, ಹುಷಾರ್, ಹೋಬಳಿ, ಇತ್ಯಾದಿ.

English.—ಅಖೀರ್, ಅಫಿನ್, ಇಂಕ್, ಇನೀಮಾ, ಇಷ್ತೀಫಾದ್, ಎಕರೆ, ಎನ್ವಲಪ್, ಔನ್ನು, ಕಂತ್ರಾಟು, ಕವರು, ಕಾಪಿ, ಕಾಮು, ಕಾರ್ಡ್, ಕೇಸು, ಕೋರ್ಟು, ಕೋರ್ಟು, ಕ್ಯಾಂಡರ್, ಕ್ಯಾಮರಾ, ಕಬ್ಬು, ಕ್ಲಾಸು, ಕ್ರಿಕೆಟ್ಟು, ಕೈನಾ, ಗೆಜೆಟ್, ಗೋಲ್, ಗೌಟ್, ಗ್ಯಾಸ್, ಚಕ್ಕು, ಚಾರ್ಜು, ಚಿಮ್ಮಿ, ಜಡ್ಡಿ, ಜೈರ್, ಟಕ್, ಟರಂ, ಟವರ್, ಟಾನಿಕ್, ಟೆಕೀಟು, ಟೀ, ಟೆಕ್ನಿಕ್, ಟೆನಿಸ್, ಟೇಬಲ್, ಟ್ರಾಂಪಿನ್, ಟ್ರಂಕು, ಟ್ರೆಜರಿ, ಟ್ರೇಡ್, ಡಬ್ಲ್, ಡಾಕ್ಟರ್, ಡಿಗ್ರಿ, ಡಿಪಾರ್ಟ್, ಡಿವಿಡೆಂಡ್, ಡೆಪೊ, ಡೆಲವರಿ, ಡೈರಿ, ಡ್ರಾಂ, ಡ್ರಿಲ್, ಡರ್ಮಾಮಿಟರ್, ನಂಬರ್, ನಾಟ್ವಿಲ್, ನೋಟಿಸ್, ನೋಟುಕ್ಟು, ನೋಟು, ಪಿಯಾನೊ, ಪೀರಿಯಡ್, ಪೆನ್ಸಿಲ್, ಪೇಪರ್, ಪೇನಾ, ಪೈಮೆಂಟ್, ಪೊಲೀಸ್, ಪೋರ್ಟರ್, ಪೋಸ್ಟಲ್, ಪೋಸ್ಟೇಜ್, ಪ್ಯಾಸ್, ಪ್ಯಾಂಸರಿ, ಪ್ರೊನೋಟ್, ಪ್ಯಾನರ್, ಪ್ಲೀಡರ್, ಪ್ಲೇಗ್,

\* This word is found in the Kannada proverb ಕಂಕುಳ್ಳ ದೋಣಿ ಕೈಯಲ್ಲಿ ಸರಾಮು as given in Kittel's Dictionary, though ಶರಣಾರ್ಥಿ usually occurs in place of ಸರಾಮು. In Tamil, however, it has been used even in poetry by Arunagirinādar, a poet of about the 17th century :—

ಶುರಾದಿಪತಿ ಮಾಲಯನು ಮಾರೊಡು ಶರಾ ಮಿಡು

ಶುರಾಮು ಮಲೈವಾಯಂ ಪರುಮಾಳಿ (ಶಿರುಪುಗುಂ).

ಪಾರಂ, ಫೆಯಿರ್, ಫೋಚೋ, ಬನಿಯ್, ಬರ್ನರ್, ಬಾಂಡ್, ಬಿರ್, ಬಿಸ್ಕತ್, ಬುಕ್ಕೋನ್ಸ್, ಬೂಟ್ಸ್, ಬೆಂಚ್, ಬೆಲೂಕ್, ಬೈಬರ್, ಬ್ಯಾಂಕು, ಬ್ರಾಂದಿ, ಬ್ರೆಡ್, ಮಿಕ್ಸೆಡ್, ಮಿನಿಮಂ, ಮೀಟರ್, ಮೆರಿನಾ, ಮೆಷೀಕ್, ಮೇಸ್ಟ್ರಿ, ಮೈಲಿ, ಮ್ಯಾಚ್, ಮ್ಯಾಪು, ರಬ್ಬರ್, ರಿಕಾರ್ಡು, ರಿಜಿಸ್ಟರ್, ರಿಪೇರೀಟರ್, ರೂಲರ್, ರೂಲು, ರೈಲು, ಲನ್ಸರ್, ಲಾಂಗ್‌ಕೋಟು, ಲಾಕಪ್, ಲಾಯರ್, ಲೀವ್, ಲೆಟರ್‌ಪೇಪರ್, ಲ್ಯಾಂಪು, ವಾರಂಟ್, ವಾರ್‌ಲ್ಯಾಂಪ್, ವಾಚರ್, ವ್ಯಾಗ್, ಪರ್ಚ್, ಸಬ್ಜೆಕ್ಟ್, ಸಮುಕ್, ಸರ್ಜ್, ಸವರ್ಕ್, ಸಿಮೆಂಟ್, ಸಿರಿಂಜ್, ಸಿಲ್ಕ್, ಸಿವಿಲ್, ಸೋಫಾ, ಸ್ಕೂಲ್, ಸ್ಕೂಲರ್, ಸ್ಟಾಂಪು, ಸ್ಟೂಲ್, ಸ್ಟೇಷನ್, ಸ್ಟೆಂಪ್, ಸ್ಟೂಕ್, ಸ್ಟೋರ್ಟ್ಸ್, ಹಾರ್ಮೋನಿಯಂ, ಹಾಸ್ಟೆಲ್, ಹೋಟೆಲ್, ಹ್ಯಾಂಗಿಂಗ್ ಲ್ಯಾಂಪ್, ಇತ್ಯಾದಿ.

In Modern Kannada, even Sanskrit Avyayas or indeclinables have gained currency to spoil the elegance of the vernacular. The following are some of them :— ಬಹುಶಃ, ಪ್ರಾಯಶಃ, ಪ್ರಾಯೇಣ, ಏತೇನ, ಏವಂಚ, ಪರಂತು, ಸದ್ಯಃ, ಅಥವಾ, ಪುನಃ, ಮುಖತಃ, ಕ್ರಮೇಣ, ಅಗತ್ಯಾ, ಸ್ವತಃ, ಯದ್ಯಪಿ, ಇತ್ಯಂ, ಇತ್ಯಾದಿ.

In the interests of the purity of the language it is very necessary that strenuous attempts should be made to stop as far as possible the influx of unnecessary words from foreign sources.

#### NORTHERN AND SOUTHERN SCHOOLS IN KANNADA.

The expressions northern and southern schools occur in the *Kavirājamārga* of Nripatunga, the *Kāvyaśāloka* of Nāgavarma II and the *Śabdānu-śāsa* of Bhaṭṭakalāṅka. In the second chapter of the *Kavirājamārga* these expressions are used when treating of the ten merits of composition. This part of the chapter being, however, mostly a translation of the first chapter of Daṇḍi's *Kāvyaadarśa* in which the expressions are used in the sense of the Gauda and Vaidarbha schools or styles in Sanskrit, whatever Nripatunga has written with regard to the merits of composition refers as in the original to the Gauda and Vaidarbha schools, and not to the northern and southern schools in Kannada. Several examples of Nripatunga's translation of Daṇḍi's verses are given in the Kannada Introduction (pp. 23-25) to Volume II of my *Karṇāṭaka-Kavicharite*. Nripatunga, however, gives in another place\* what he con-

\* II, 100-104.

siders to be the distinguishing characteristics of the northern and southern schools in Kannada, which consist merely in the use of one of the recognised duplicate forms of certain verbs in preference to the other, *e.g.*, the forms ನೋಡುವೆಂ and ಬರಿಸೆಂ in the northern and ನೋಡ್ವಂ and ಬರಿಸುವೆಂ in the southern. He further gives three examples in poetry of the northern and southern styles\* in Kannada where it is not quite clear how they differ from one another. One example is given below for examination:—

Verse 107.

ವಿದಿತಸುರಾಧಿರಾಜಮಕುಟಾಗ್ರಸಮರ್ಪಿತದೊಳ್ ಮುನೀಂದ್ರನಾ|  
ಪದಯುಗದೊಳ್ ಮನೋಮುದದೆ ಬಾಗುವೆಂ (Northern)  
ತ್ರಿದಶಗಣೇಶಮಾಳಮಣಪೀಠನಿಷ್ಠೇವಿಗಳೊಳ್ ಮುನೀಂದ್ರನಾ|  
ಪದಯುಗಳಂಗಳೊಳ್ ಮುದದೆ ಬಾಗುವೆಂ (Southern)

Whatever may have been the case during or previous to the time of Nripatunga in the matter of the use of the forms of verbs noted above, we find no such distinction observed by authors who came after him.

Let us see what Nāgavarma II says about the northern and southern schools. He has adopted the title of the first chapter of Daṇḍi's work, namely, Mārgavibhāga, for the first section, which treats of the same subject, of the third chapter of his *Kāvya-āvalōkana*, and has closely followed Daṇḍi, like Nripatunga, in the treatment of the ten merits of composition. His verses 500 and 521 are merely a translation of verses 41 and 42 of the first chapter of the *Kāvya-ādarśa*.† So, the northern and southern schools men-

\* II, 106-108.

† ಸಮಸಂತ್ಸಿಷ್ಠಾರ್ಥವ್ಯುಕ್ತಿಮಧುರಕಾಂತಪ್ರಸನ್ನ ಸುಕುಮಾರೋಜ|  
ಸ್ವಮಾಭಿಮತೋದಾರಾಪ್ತಯು|ಸಮಾಧಿಗಳ್ ಕೃತಿಗುಣಂಗಳ್ಳಿರಯ್ಯುಕ್ತುಂ||  
ಇವು ನಿಯತಂ ದಕ್ಷಿಣದೇ|ಶವರ್ತಿಕವಿರಾಜಮಾರ್ಗದೊಳ್ ನೆಗಬ್ಬುಂ ಮು|  
ತ್ವವಹ ಏಕರ್ಮಯವ್ಯತ್ರಿಯು|ಏವರಿನು ಗುಮುದೀಚ್ಯಮಾರ್ಗದೊಳ್ ಪ್ರಚುರತಯುಂ||

—Nāgavarma II.

ಶ್ಲೇಷಃ ಪ್ರಸಾದಃ ಸಮತಾ ಮಾಧುರ್ಯಂ ಸುಕುಮಾರತಾ|  
ಆರ್ಥವ್ಯುಕ್ತಿ ರುದಾರತ್ವಮೋಜಃಕಾಂತಸಮಾಧಯಃ||  
ಇತಿ ವೈದರ್ಭಮಾರ್ಗಸ್ಯ ಪ್ರಾಣಾ ದಶಗುಣಾಃ ಸ್ವತಃ|  
ಏಷಾಂ ಏಕರ್ಮಯಃ ಪ್ರಾಯೋ ದೃಶ್ಯತೇ ಗೌಡವತ್ಯನಿ||

—Daṇḍi.

tioned by Nāgavarma II do not refer to any such schools in Kannaḍa but to the Gauḍa and Vaidarbha schools in Sanskrit.

Coming now to Bhaṭṭākalaṅka, we find that in his commentary on *Sūtra* 288 ಅದೇನು of his *Śabdānuśāsana* he recognises the existence of the northern and southern schools in Kannaḍa and tells us that, of the two forms of the pronoun of the first person, *nān* is used by the poets of the north and *ān* by those of the south. But this dictum is not borne out by literature, since we find both the forms used indiscriminately by the poets of the north and the south.

The foregoing enquiry has led us to the conclusion that according to Nṛpatunga and Bhaṭṭākalaṅka there exist the northern and southern schools in Kannaḍa, their distinguishing characteristics being the use of one of the recognised duplicate forms of certain verbs and of the pronoun of the first person in preference to the other. But a study of Kannaḍa literature shows that these distinctions are more honoured in the breach than in the observance by the poets. It does not therefore appear to serve any useful purpose at present to make too much of what is evidently a distinction without a difference and quarrel about the northern and southern schools in Kannaḍa. It is not, however, denied that in Modern Kannaḍa there are local varieties due to geographical separation of the Kannaḍa speaking communities and their contact with people speaking non-Dravidian languages.

The late Mr. R. Raghunatha Rao, B.A., wrote at considerable length about the above-mentioned northern and southern schools in Kannaḍa and expressed the opinion that they owed their origin mainly to the influence of Telugu and Tamil respectively. There do not, however, seem to be sufficient grounds for this opinion. Mr. Raghunatha Rao seems to have argued like this: Telugu does not possess the letter ಁ (1); and according to Nṛpatunga the northern school in Kannaḍa does not use verbal forms with ಁ; consequently the northern

school must have come into existence through Telugu influence. Though Telugu does not at present possess the letter *œ*, it had the letter even in the early part of the 10th century, about 50 years after the time of Nripatunga (815-877), as is evidenced by the Bezvada Telugu poetical inscription of the Eastern Chālukya king Yuddhamalla (927-934), in which the letter is used. Again, if the northern school in Kannaḍa arose through Telugu influence, Telugu ought to have only the form *nēnu* of the pronoun of the first person, but we find in it also the other form *ēnu* corresponding to the *ān* of the southern school. Further, if the southern school arose through Tamil influence, there is no reason for the existence in that language of *nān*, the form of the northern school. It is thus seen that there are no valid grounds for supposing that the northern and southern schools in Kannaḍa were brought into existence by Telugu and Tamil influence respectively.

There was a long controversy between Mr. Raghunatha Rao and myself about this matter. He challenged me to offer a rational explanation without having recourse to Telugu influence of these three points: 1. the disappearance of the letter *œ* from Modern Kannaḍa; 2. the use of ಎ for all tenses in the subjunctive mood in Modern Kannaḍa; and 3. the use of ಎ and ಉ for ಎ and ಉ. The following was the explanation given after some preliminary remarks which ran thus:—

It is unscientific to jump to conclusions by observing similarity of form in one or two instances. We must not be carried away by superficial resemblances but must try our best to trace effects to proper causes. These resemblances may be, for ought we know, "the result of like forces working independently in different languages," or they may be independent developments of tendencies commonly inherited. When the language itself does not afford a tolerably satisfactory explanation, it is then reasonable to postulate external influence. In these cases I shall try to show that the theory of

extraneous influence fails miserably, and that the changes have been *ab intra*.

1. The disappearance of  $\omega$  from Modern Kannāḍa.

As stated before, Telugu had  $\omega$  in the first half of the 10th century, and must have lost it about the close of that century, since, according to Telugu scholars, the earliest extant Telugu work, which belongs to the 11th century, does not show any trace of it. In Kannāḍa the letter continued for two centuries longer and disappeared in the 13th century. We thus see that it took at least two centuries for the Telugu influence to take effect in Kannāḍa. Further, it is rather strange that Kannāḍa has lost the letter  $\omega$  ( $r$ ) which is still in use in Telugu. Here Telugu influence has had no effect whatever on Kannāḍa. It will thus be seen that Telugu influence does not help us in the matter. The reason for the loss of the letter in Kannāḍa has to be sought in some other quarter. Philologists agree that in all languages the principle of laziness or phonetic decay is at work. According to this principle there is a tendency in all languages to soften down difficult sounds. And the sound of the letter in question being a difficult one, each Dravidian language has tried to soften it down in its own way. Thus Telugu ordinarily substitutes  $d$  for it, in some cases it uses  $r$ ,  $n$  or  $l$  instead, sometimes it omits the consonant altogether without any substitute. In Tamil, the letter seems merging in most parts of the country either into  $l$  or  $y$ ; and the same is the case in Malayālam. In Kannāḍa it is changed into  $l$  and in Tulu into  $r$ ,  $n$  and  $l$ , so that we see the operation of a general principle in all these languages. The assumption of Telugu influence will not be of any use unless we are in a position to prove that it was the cause of similar changes in all these languages.

2. The use of  $\omega\delta$  (dare) for all tenses in the subjunctive mood in Modern Kannāḍa.

Here there seems to be no connection whatever between the forms used in Kannāḍa and Telugu. In Kannāḍa the particle  $\omega\delta$  a corruption of the Old



Kannada ಒತೆ, is affixed to the past relative participle. In Telugu, on the other hand, there are three ways of forming the conditional form—by adding the suffix ನ or ತೆ to the past verbal participle, ಚೇನಿನ, ಚೇನಿತೆ, and by adding ಎನಿ to the past tense of a finite verb, ಚೇನಿತನೇನಿ. Not only are the particles different in the two languages but also the formation of the conditional forms.

If the idea is that ದರೆ, the past form, is used for all the tenses in Kannada as the form with ತೆ is used in Telugu, it has to be stated that ದರೆ is not used for all tenses in Modern Kannada; it is not used with verbs in the past tense—ಬಂದರೆ ಕೊಟ್ಟೆನು is an expression not commonly heard. The same is also the case in Telugu and Tamil. Again, there is also a future conditional form in Kannada--ಮುಡಿವರೆ. Granting that ದರೆ is the suffix used for the present and future tenses in Kannada, is it necessary to postulate Telugu influence to account for this? The past conditional form is used for the present and future tenses in Tamil also. Are we to postulate Telugu influence here too?

3. The use of ಹು and ಅ for ಹ್ಲು and ಅಲ್ಲ.

The 36th sūtra in the 2nd chapter of the *Āndhra-chintāmaṇi*, ಪ್ರಥಮಲುಗು ದ್ವಿನುಲ್ವೇಷ, says that in compounds the final double *nu* and *lu* of the first word may become single, but not when followed by a vowel. It will be seen that this rule is optional; it operates only in compounds in which the first words end in double *nu* or *lu*, and not when they are followed by a vowel. Mr. Raghunatha Rao thinks it necessary to press into his service a part of this optional rule to explain the form ಹು in Kannada. The word ಪಾ or ಪ್ಲು is the common property of Kannada and Telugu, as also of many other languages of the Dravidian group. The forms in Telugu and Kannada, though similar, have been arrived at in different ways. In Telugu, as the rule quoted above shows, the original form of the word was ಪ್ಲು. For metrical purposes the double ಲ was

sometimes made single (*Brown's Grammar*, p. 296). But in Kannada the original form was ಪಲ್, which is changed into ಪು or ಪು in compounds in *shatpadi* works. The principle according to which this change takes place is this : Sanskrit words are made tadbhava by separating conjunct consonants and adding some vowel, generally *u*, to the first letter to secure easy enunciation, *e.g.*, ಪದ್ಮ, ಪದ್ಮಮ ; ಪಲ್ಲನ, ಪಲ್ಲಗುಣ. The same principle is at work in Modern Kannada when dealing with Old Kannada words, *e.g.*, ಪಲ್ಲುರಿದು, ಪಲ್ಲುಮುರಿದು ; ಬರಾಣ, ಬಲುಜಾಣ.

With regard to ಅಲ್ಲ Mr. Raghunatha Rao dogmatically asserts ಇದು ತೆಲುಗಿನ ಪದ್ಧತಿ—this is the Telugu usage. We know that Telugu does not use ಅಲ್ಲ as a locative suffix, nor does it change it into ಅಲಿ. The locative suffix in Telugu is ಅಂದು to which the particle ಅಲಿ is sometimes added, but this ಅಲಿ is distinctly stated to be an augment used only in forming compounds. It answers to ಇನ of Kannada—ಅಂದಲಿ, ಅಲ್ಲನ. Under the rule quoted above, the example of ತಲ್ಲ becoming ತಲಿ in compounds is also given. I do not see how this can prove Telugu influence. Let us see if we can account for this form in Kannada. It is optional in Kannada to use either of the forms ಬಂದಪಂ or ಬಂದಪ್ಪಂ, ತರಿಪಂ or ತರಿಪ್ಪಂ, ರಂಜಿಕುಂ or ರಂಜಿಕ್ಕುಂ. Metrical requirements are no doubt the cause of this option. The same appears to be the case with the locative suffix ಅಲ್ಲ. Its alternative form ಅಲಿ occurs in works and inscriptions of even the 11th century. Inserting or dropping a consonant for metrical purposes is very common in Tamil and Telugu. We therefore see even here the operation of a general law in all these languages and need not postulate the influence of one over another.

From what has been said above it is not to be inferred that Telugu has not exercised any influence whatever on the Kannada language. Verbal roots ending in vowels, the addition of *u* to nouns ending in

*i*, *u*, and *e*, and the use of the root *an* for *en* in Modern Kannada are only a few of the facts which bear testimony to Telugu influence. What was meant was that in the cases mentioned by Mr. Raghunatha Rao there was no reason at all to postulate Telugu influence.

#### STAGES OF THE KANNADA LANGUAGE.

There are three stages of the Kannada language, namely, Pūrvada Haḷagannāḍa or Primitive Old Kannada, Haḷagannāḍa or Old Kannada and Hosagannāḍa or Modern Kannada. Kittel, in the Introduction to his Kannada-English Dictionary, omits, however, Primitive Old Kannada and gives Classical, Mediæval and Modern as the three stages of the language. Primitive Old Kannada is said to have been in use to the end of the 7th century and seems to answer to the Paḷagannāḍa of Nṛipatunga. It is a very important stage in the language possessing several grammatical peculiarities which are not found in the succeeding or Haḷagannāḍa stage. As instances may be mentioned:—

1. The lengthening of the vowel of the conjugational suffixes of the 3rd person—ಸದಾಃ, ಏಕಾದಾರ್, ಪಡೆದಾಃ, ಪ್ರಸಾದಂಗೆಯ್ದಾರ್.
2. The very common change of this vowel into *ō*—ಸಂದೋಃ, ಅಪ್ಪೋಃ, ಕೊಂದೋಃ, ಕೊಚ್ಚೋರ್, ಸಲ್ಪೋಃ.
3. The use of *u* for the locative suffix—ವೆಟ್ಟುದುಳ್, ಧರಣಿಯುಳ್.
4. The lengthening of the vowel in the suffixes of the negative mood—ತಪ್ಪಾದೆ, ಕುಡಾದೋ, ನಿರಾಜಾದೆ.
5. The use of ಒದು and sometimes of ಅದು for the neuter suffix—ಇತ್ತೊದು, ಕೊಚ್ಚೊದು, ವಿಟ್ಟದು.
6. The use of *n* for bindu—ಅವಃ, ಅದಿತ್ಯಃ, ಇಂಬಿನಿಃ, ನೋನ್ನಿ, ಅವನ್ನಿ.
7. The lengthening of the vowel of the accusative suffix, even when not followed by a vowel—ಎಂಟುಮತ್ತರಾಃ ಕೊಟ್ಟು, ಕೋಚಿಯಾಃ ರೋಹಿಣಿ.

8. The lengthening of *a* the genitive and adjectival suffix—ದೇವನಾ, ಅವರಾ, ಏಜನೆಯಾ, ಕಿಣಿಯಾ.

9. The use of ಗ or ಕ as the suffix of the 3rd person of the imperative mood—ಕೊಳ್ಳ, ಕೆಡುಗ, ಪುಟ್ಟಲ್ಕ, ರಕ್ಷಕ. We have this suffix in Modern Kannada also: ನಿನ್ನ ಮನೆ ಕಾಯವಾಗ, ಅವನ ಮನೆ ಹಾಳಾಗಿ ಹೋಗ.

10. The use of *v* for *b*—ಎನ್ವ, ಉಣ್ವೋರ್, ಇರ್ಪದಿನ್ವರ್, ಬಪ್ಪ, ವರೆದೋ.

11. The use of the vowel *e* for *i*—ಎಱಿ, ಎನೆಬ್ಬರುಂ, ಎನೆತುಮಂ.

12. The use of double consonants for single ones—ತಡಕ್ಕಾದು, ತಲೆಪ್ಪೊಟಿ, ಎಱುತ್ತುನಂ, ಇತ್ಯಾದಿ.

As no works of this period have come down to us, a few inscriptions of the 6th, 7th and 8th centuries will be quoted to illustrate the points noted above.

1. Tagare Plates of Polavira.\* C. 550.

ಇದಕ್ಕೇ ನಲವೇಡುಪೋ ಪುಣ್ಯಭಾಗಿ ಅಕೆ, ಕೇಡುವೇಡುಪೋ ಪಳ್ಳುಮಹಾ ಪಾತಕಕ ಅಕೆ.

2. Badāmi Cave Inscription.† C. 575.

ಸ್ವಸ್ತಿ ಶ್ರೀಮತ್ ಪ್ರಿಥಿವೀವಲ್ಲಭ ಮಂಗಲೇಸನಾ ಕಲ್ಪನೆಗೆ ಇತ್ತೊಡು ಲಂಜಿಗೇಸರಂ. ದೇವಕ್ಕೇ ಪೂನಿಟುವ ಮಾಲಾಕಾರಗ್ಗೆ ಅರ್ಧವಿನದಿ ಇತ್ತೊ ದಾನಟಿಪೋ ಪಳ್ಳುಮಹಾಪಾತಕನಕುಂ ಏಜನೆಯಾ ನರಕದಾ ಪುಟು ಅಕುಂ.

3. Koppa 38 (Kadur District). C. 675.

ಅದಾನಟಿಪೋರುಂ ಮನದೆ ನೆನೆಪೋರುಂ ಅಟಿಮೆನೆಂದುಪಾದೇಶಂ ಕೊಡುಪೋರುಂ ಪಳ್ಳುಮಹಾಪಾತಕನೆಯುಕ್ತರಪ್ಪಾರ್. ದೇವದಣ್ಣದಿನ್ನೆಟಿಪೆ ಪ್ಪಡುಪೋರುಮಪ್ಪಾರ್. ರಾಜದಣ್ಣಮುಮೆಯೆಪ್ಪಡುವಾರ್.

4. Koppa 37 (Kadur District). C. 690.

ಕೊಳ್ಳೋರುಂ ಕೊಣ್ಣು ಉಣ್ವೋರುಂ ಪೂತಿ ಎನ್ವ ನರಗಕ್ಕೆ ಸರ್ಗೆ. ಧರ್ಮಮಾ ಕಾದೋರಾ ಕುಲಂ ಪೆಟ್ಟುಗೆ. ಇದಾ ಪೆಟಿನೋರ್ವ ಕೊಳ್ಳೋನುಂ ಕೊಡುಪೋನುಂ ಪಳ್ಳುಮಹಾಪಾತಕನಕ್ಕುಂ.

5. Śravana Belgōla 88, C. 700.

ಪರಮಾರ್ಥಂ ಮೆಚ್ಚಿನಾನೀ ಧರಣಿಯುಳಿರವಾನೆನ್ನು ಸನ್ಯಾಸನಂಗೆ | ಯ್ವುರುಸತ್ತ್ವೇ ನನ್ನಿಸೇನ ಪ್ರವರಮುನಿವರೇ ದೇವರೋಕಕ್ಕೆ ಸನ್ಯಾ ||

6. Śravana Belgōla 27, C. 700.

ಮಾಸೇನರ್ ಪರಮಪ್ರಭಾವಿಷಿಯರ್ ಕಟ್ಟಪ್ಪಿನಾ ಪೆಟ್ಟುದುಳ್ | ಶ್ರೀ ಸಂಪಂಗಳ ಪೇಟ್ಟ ಸಿದ್ಧಸಮಯಂ ತಪ್ಪಾದೆ ನೋನ್ನಿಮ್ಮಿನಿ ||

\* Mysore Archaeological Report for 1918, 36.

† Indian Antiquary, x, 59.

ಪ್ರಾಸಾದಾನ್ ರಮಾ ವಿಚಿತ್ರಕನಕಪ್ರಜ್ವಲ್ಯದಿ ಮಿಕ್ಕುದಾ |  
ಸಾಸಿರ್ವರ್ ವರಪೂಜೆದಂದುಯೆ ಅವರ್ ಸ್ವರ್ಗಾಗ್ರಮಾನೇಜುದಾರ್ ||

7. Māchēnhaḷḷi Plates of Jayasangraha,\* C. 700.  
ಮೂನೂರ್ವರುಂ ರಕ್ಷಿಕ ಕಿಞಿಯ ಅರಸಂ ಒಕ್ಕರ್ ಪೆಟ್ಟಿಗೆ.

8. Inscription at Mahākūṭa near Bādāmi,† C. 720.  
ದೇವನಾ ಪೀಠಮಾ ಕಿಸುವಿನೆ ಕಟ್ಟಿ ಬೆಳ್ಳಿಯಾ ಕೊಡೆಯಾನೇಜುಸಿ ಎ ಮ  
ಜ್ಜಿಲ್ಲಳ್ ಅಪ್ಪಶತಂ ಕ್ಷೇತ್ರಗೊಟ್ಟೊರ್. ಇದಾನಟಿದೋ ಪನ್ನಾ ಮಹಾಪಾತಕನಕ್ಕುಂ.

9. Hoskōṭe 86 (Bangalore District). C. 725.  
ಇದಟಿಪೋ ವಾರಣಾಸಿಯುಳ್ ಸಾಸಿರ್ವ ಪಾರ್ವರುಂ ಸಾಸಿರ ಕವಿ  
ಲೆಯುಂ ಕೊಂದೋನ ಲೋಕಕ್ಕೆ ಸಂದೋ.

10. Bowringpet 13 (Kolar District). C. 725.  
ಪಾಲ್ಪಡುವಿನುಳ್ ಪಡುವಣ ಕೆಱೆಯುಳ್ ತಾಮರೆಕಟ್ಟಿ ಕೆಲಗೆ ಕರ್ನಾಡು  
ಪ್ರಸಾದಜೆಯಾರ್.

11. Dēvalāpura Inscription (Mysore District).‡ C. 750.  
ಮದುಗರುಂ ಕೋನಬ್ಬರುಂ ಸಾಕ್ಷಿ ಆಗ ಕೊಟ್ಟರು. ವಾರಣಾಸಿಯಾ  
ಸಾಸಿರಕವಿಲೆ ಸಾಸಿರಪಾರ್ವರ್ ಕೊನ್ನ ಕೊಲೆ ಅಕ್ಕ. ಕೆಡಿಸಿದೋನುಂ ಕೇಡು  
ವೇಡಿದೋನುಂ ಓತೋನುಂ ಒದವಿದೋನುಂ.

12. Agara Inscription (Mysore District).§ C. 750.  
ನಾಲ್ಪದಿನ್ನಕ್ಕುಂ ಒನ್ನಂನಿಂಗಲೆ ವಿಟ್ಟಿ ಇರ್ದೆ. ಎಬ್ಬಕೋಳ್ ಇರ್ದೆ.  
ಇರ್ಪದಿನ್ನರಾ ಎಬ್ಬಕೋಳ್ ಇರ್ದೆ. ತಲೆಪ್ಪೊಜೆಯಕ್ಕು ಸುಂಕಂ.

13. Pāvagaḍa 11 (Tumkur District). 754.  
ಇತ್ತಾರಕಳನಮುದ್ದರುಳ್. ವಕ್ರವಪ್ಪೋ ಪನ್ನಾ ಮಹಾಪಾತಕನಕ್ಕುಂ,  
ರಕ್ಷಪ್ಪೋ ಪೊಕೊನ್ನಪಾಸಿಯಕ್ಕುಂ, ಲಿಖಿಚ್ಚಿದೋ ದಿವ್ಯನಾಮಾಕುಲ.

14. Heggaḍadēvankōṭe 87 (Mysore District). C. 800.

ಸ್ವಸ್ತಿ ಶ್ರೀಮತ್ ಶಿವಮಾರಂ ಪ್ರಿಥುವೀರಾಜ್ಯಂಕೆಯೆ ವೆದಿರು ಸ್ವರ್ಗತ್ತೆ  
ಜಿಯ ಮರಿಯಾದಿ ಕೊಟ್ಟಾರ್. ಸೇಬೆಗೆ ವಿಟ್ಟಾರ್. ಇದಾನಟಿತ್ತೋ ಪನ್ನಾ  
ಮಹಾಪಾತಕನಯುಕ್ತನಪ್ಪೋ. ಅನ್ನಿನಾ ತೆಱು ಎ ಕೊಳ್ಳ ಅನ್ನಿನಾಕೆಯ್ವನನೆ  
ಕೊಳ್ಳ. ದೇವಮಣ್ಣು ಪಾಂದಾರ ಎಜಿತ್ತನಮೆ. ಅದಾನಟಿತ್ತೋ ಸಾಸಿರ ಕವಿ  
ಲೆಯುಮಾ ಕೊನ್ನೋ ಅಪ್ಪೋ. ಒಕ್ಕಲಿಳ್ಳಿತ್ತಿನ್ನಕ್ಕು ಪುಟ್ಟಿಲ್ಲ. ಪುಟ್ಟಿ  
ದೊಪುಂ ಪುರಿಗ.

\* Mysore Archaeological Report for 1908, 6.

† Indian Antiquary x, 104.

‡ Mysore Archaeological Report for 1916, 37.

§ Ibid. for 1917, 31.

## 15. Sorab 10 (Shimoga District). C. 800.

ಅಳುವಣೀಡಮಹುಸಾಸಿರನುಮಾಣ ಚಿತ್ರವಾಹನನಾಳುತ್ತುಂ ಬಾಯ್ತೇ  
ಳದಿರೆ ಮುನಿದು ನೊಟಮ್ಮ ರಾದಿತ್ಯನಾ ವೆನಸರ್ ಪೆಗ್ಗುಳ್ಳಾಯ ಕೋಟಿಯಾಣ್  
ಲೋಟಿಸಿ ಕಿಟ್ಟಿ ಕಾದಿ ಮಹುವಕ್ಕದವರ ಮೆಯ್ಯೆಯ್ಯಂಬಾಗೆ ಎಚ್ಚೋಡಿಸಿ ತಾನುಂ  
ಪಲಪುಂ ಏನುವತ್ತು ಕಣಿಪ್ಪಾ ರದೊಳಿಣಿ ಭೀಷ್ಣ ವಿಜ್ಞಪ್ತೆ ನಲಮುಟ್ಟದೆ  
ಬಿಡ್ಚೊನಾಣ್ ದೇವಗಣಿಕ್ಕೆಯರ್ ಅಗ್ಗುವು ಡಿದು ಬನ್ನಿ ದಿಗ್ಗೊಣ್ಣುಯೆ ವೀರಲೋ  
ಕಕ್ಕೆ ಸನ್ನೋಣ್. ಇನ್ನೀ ಎನೆಬ್ಬರುಂ ಶ್ರೀಕರಣಸತಿಂ ಬಿಟ್ಟಾರ್. ಇದ್ ಕೆಡಿ  
ಪೊನುಂ ಕೆಡೆಬಾಡ್ಚೊನುಂ ಪೆಣ್ಣ ಮಹಾಪಾತಕಸಂಯುಕ್ತನಕ್ಕುಂ. ವಾರ  
ಣಾಸಿಯೋ ಸಾಸಿರಕವಿಲೆಯ್ ಕೊನ್ನೋನ ಲೋಕಕ್ಕೆ ಸನ್ನೋನುಮಕ್ಕುಂ.

Now, the forms ಸಂದಾಣ್, ಬಂದೋಣ್, ಒಕ್ಕಲುಳ್, ತಪ್ಪಾದೆ, ಎಟ್ಟದು, ನೋನ್ನಿ, ಕೆಡುಗ, ವರೆದೋ, ಎಣಿ, ತಡೆಕ್ಕಾಡು, which are not found in Halagannada, are identical or nearly so with the forms used in Tamil. It may be stated that as we go farther back to the early period of Kannada literature we shall find the forms approximate more and more to the Tamil ones.

A few notes may be added on certain additional forms contained in the inscriptions quoted above. The numbers denote those of the inscriptions.

2. ದೇವಕ್ಕಿ. The suffix *ke* occurs where we should expect *ge*. Compare also ಮುತ್ತರನಕ್ಕಿ in another inscription of C. 750. ಪೂನಿಱುವ. ನಿಱು as a verb is obsolete in Halagannada, though the word ನಿಱುಗೆ occurs.

3. ಅತಿಮ್, the 2nd person plural of the imperative mood, is identical with the Tamil ಅತಿಮಿ. The Halagannada form is ಅತಿಯಂ. The form ಕೊಡು occurs, which is identical with the Tamil ಕೊಡು, the Halagannada form being ಕುಡು. It is interesting to note the passive forms ಎಣುವಪ್ಪಡುಪ್ಪೋರ್ and ಎಯ್ಪಡುವಾರ್ in about 675.

8. ಎಣಿಸಿ ಎ. The particle of emphasis *e* is not combined with the previous word as in Halagannada. ಉಳ್ಳೆ answers to ಒಳಿ of Halagannada.

10. ಕಟ್ಟಿಕೆಲಿಗೆ Cp. Tamil ಕಟ್ಟಿಕೆಲಿಡ್. The Halagannada form would be ಕಟ್ಟಿನಕೆಲಿಗೆ.

11. ಆಗ Cp. Tamil ಆಗ. In Halagannada it would be ಆಗುಗೆ. ಕೆಡು is identical with the Tamil ಕೆಡು, the Halagannada form being ಕಿಡು.



12. ಇಲ್ಲಿ Cp. Tamil ಇಷ್ಟೆ. In Halagannada it is generally ಇಲ್ಲ.

13. ವೈಕೊನ್ನ, the *tadbhava* of ವೈಕುಂಠ, may be compared with the Tamil ವೈಗುಂದಂ. ಲಿಖಿಚ್ಚಿದೋ may be compared with the Telugu ಲಿಖಿಚಿನಪಾಡು and the Tamil ಲಿಖಿತ್ತೋ. The Halagannada form would be ಲಿಖಿದಂ.

14. ಅತಿತ್ತೋ is identical with the Tamil ಅತಿತ್ತೋ. It would be ಅತಿದಂ in Halagannada. ಪುಟ್ಟಲ್ (let them not be born) is the same as the Tamil negative verb ಪಿಟವಕ್ಕು, the Tamil root corresponding to ಪುಟ್ಟು being ಪಿಟ. ಅರ್ is the negative particle in both the languages—ಪುಗರ್ ಮಾಡಲಂ; ಶಯ್ಯಕ್ಕು. In Halagannada it would be ಪುಟ್ಟದಿಕ್ಕು.

As stated before, Kittel omits Primitive Old Kannada altogether, and mentions Halagannada. Classical or Ancient Kannada answering to Halagannada and Modern Kannada with an intervening stage called Mediæval Kannada. According to him Halagannada is quite uniform and shows an extraordinary amount of polish and refinement. It has to the present time been preserved in several works written mostly by Jaina scholars, and appears to have been in common use for literary purposes from at least the 10th to the middle of the 13th century. Its principal characteristics are the elaborate and highly artificial *champu* composition, strict adherence to the use of now more or less disused case-and tense-signs and to the rules of syntax, the use of Sanskrit words in their unaltered form whenever desirable or necessary as an aid in composition and that of a conventionally received number of *tadbhavas*, the proper distinction between the letters ಟ ಠ ಡ ಲ and ರ—alliteration carefully based also on this distinction—and lastly pleasing euphonic junction of letters.

If the term Modern Kannada is limited to the Mediæval Kannada, present Kannada of prose writings and common conversation, as is done by Dr. Kittel, an intermediate stage between

Halagannaḍa and Modern Kannaḍa, styled by him Mediæval Kannaḍa, is quite necessary. This, as contained in the poetry of Virāṣaiva authors, is written mostly in *śatpadi* metre, is negligent as to the use of suffixes and the rules of syntax, uses a few new suffixes, contains a number of *tadbhavas* not sanctioned by previous authors, has entirely lost the letter *ṣ* and frequently changes the letter *p* of the present or future verbal suffix and an initial *p* into *h*. Its period terminates at about the end of the 15th century.

From about the 16th century, according to Kittel, Mediæval Kannaḍa got the character of the language of the present day or of Modern Kannaḍa, which transition is seen especially in the poetry of the Vaishnavas.

Several ancient verbs and nouns fell into disuse, the letter *ṣ* began to be discarded, words borrowed from Mahrāṭhi and Hindustāni came into use, and more frequent omission of suffixes took place.

Modern Kannaḍa, comprising the present Kannaḍa of prose writings and common conversation, is less particular in the choice of words, arbitrary about the use of suffixes and not sparing in the use of vulgarisms especially in ordinary talk. Many words are Sanskrit especially such as are abstract, religious or scientific terms, the ancient form of the present tense has been changed, most verbal suffixes have been somewhat altered, a few of the suffixes of nouns and pronouns have ceased to be used, many verbs, nouns and particles have become obsolete, and other verbs and nouns have been formed mostly based on existing roots. It is not uniform but varies more or less according to localities.

Some scholars are of opinion that only two stages need be recognised. A scholar says: "The language changed gradually, and no useful purpose is served by dividing its history into clearly defined periods. About A.D. 1100 Nayasēna spoke of a Hosagannaḍa, and it was extensively used 50 years later. That is the only dividing line which deserves recognition."

In this connection, it may be mentioned that what were condemned as ungrammatical and unidiomatic in one stage of the language have become approved forms in the next stage.

Forms once condemned have become current. As instances may be mentioned, certain specific statements of Kēśirāja in his *Śabdamanīdarpana* about the use of certain forms and words which were not strictly followed by writers who came after him. (1) He lays down the rule that *l* ought not to be used in place of *ḷ* in words such as *ಬೆರಲ್* (sūtra 28). (2) He condemns the use, as *śithila*, of an initial letter compounded with *rēpha* following a short letter (sūtras 59 and 60); e.g., *ಮಿಲುಗುತ್ತಿಪ್ ತ್ರಿಶೂಲಿಂ*. (3) He says that verbs in the present tense ought not to be used as declinable *krillingas* (sūtra 73)\*, e.g., *ಮಾಡಿದಪನಂ*. (4) He states that nouns ending in consonants, except *ಅಗ್*, *ಈಗ್*, *ಪಗ್* and *ಇರುಗ್*, do not add the augment *in* before the genitive suffix *a* (sūtra 109); e.g., *ಬೆಮರಿನ*. (5) He disapproves of the use of the suffix *ike* after roots ending in consonants, e.g., *ಕಾಣಿಕೆ*, and of the suffix *tana* after Sanskrit words, e.g., *ಅರೋಹಕತನ* (sūtra 211)†. (6) For *sati-saptami*, which refers to two subjects or nominatives he prescribes the use of the suffix *e* and does not allow the use of *al* (sūtra 249). (7) Finally, he states that when both the words forming a compound are capable of being used as *tadbhavas*, it is wrong to use only one of them as a *tadbhava* and leave the other in its Sanskrit form; e.g., *ಮಾಣಿಕ್ಯ ಭಂಡಾರ* (sūtra 289). Most of the forms disallowed by Kēśirāja have subsequently been looked upon as correct.

A word in explanation of sūtra 60 in which Kēśirāja condemns the use as *śithila* of an initial letter compounded with *rēpha* (see 2 above), may be said

Explanation of  
Kēśirāja's 60th sūtra.

\* Bhaṭṭakalanka allows this. See his sūtras 447, 448 and 544.

† Bhaṭṭakalanka allows forms like *ಉನ್ ತತನ*. See his sūtra 431.

here, as the terms ಸತ್ಯಣಾಭ್ಯವಹಾರಿ and ಅರೋಚಿ used by him in it do not appear to have been properly understood. Kittel wrongly translates the sūtra. I give below the sūtra and his translation :—

ಬಗೆಯದೆ ಸತ್ಯಣಾಭ್ಯವಹಾರಿ | ರಿಗಘುನಿರ್ವರ್ ಗದ್ಯಕಾವ್ಯದೊಳ್ ನಿರ್ಬಂಧಂ |  
ಪುಗದೆಂದರೋಚಿಗಳದಂ | ತೆಗದೆಂದಾಗದ್ಯಪದ್ಯಕಾವ್ಯದೊಳಿಕ್ಕರ್ ||

Some (grammarians or poets) who are fond of a practice that is connected with grass (satṛiṇābhya-vahārigal), do not consider that abnormity does not enter in poetical prose (and use a short letter followed by an initial letter which is a compound with rēpha, as sithila); such disgusting persons (arōchigal) do put it in poetical prose without calling it a blame (tegal)\*.

The terms ಅರೋಚಿ and ಸತ್ಯಣಾಭ್ಯವಹಾರಿ are taken by Kēśirāja from Vāmana's *Kāvyaṭlankārasūtra* (I, 2, 1-3) where they are used in the sense of "the wise" and "the foolish" :—

ಅಧಿಕರಣ I, ಅಧ್ಯಾಯ 2.

ಅಧಿಕಾರಿ ನಿರೂಪಣಾರ್ಥಮಾಹ —

ಸೂತ್ರಂ || ಅರೋಚಕಿನಃ ಸತ್ಯಣಾಭ್ಯವಹಾರಿಣಶ್ಚ ಕವಯಃ || ೧ ||

ಇಹ ಖಲು ದ್ವಯೇ ಕವಯಃ ಸಂಭವಂತಿ—ಅರೋಚಕಿನಃ ಸತ್ಯಣಾಭ್ಯವಹಾರಿ  
ಣಶ್ಚೇತಿ. ಅರೋಚಕಿ ಸತ್ಯಣಾಭ್ಯವಹಾರಿ ಶಬ್ದೌ ಗುಣಾರ್ಥೌ. ಕೋನಾವರ್ಥಃ  
—ವಿವೇಕಿತ್ವಮವಿವೇಕಿತ್ವಂ ಚೇತಿ. ತದಾಹ—

ಸೂತ್ರಂ || ಪೂರ್ವೇ ಶಿಷ್ಯಾಃ | ವಿವೇಕಿತ್ವಾತ್ || ೨ ||

ಪೂರ್ವೇ ಖಲ್ವರೋಚಕಿನಃ ಶಿಷ್ಯಾಃ ಶಾಸನೀಯಾಃ—ವಿವೇಕಿತ್ವಾತ್ ವಿವೇ  
ಚನಶೀಲತ್ವಾತ್.

ಸೂತ್ರಂ || ನೇತರೇ | ತದ್ವಿಪರೈಯಾತ್ || ೩ ||

ಇತರೇ ಸತ್ಯಣಾಭ್ಯವಹಾರಿಣೋ ನ ಶಿಷ್ಯಾಃ—ತದ್ವಿಪರೈಯಾತ್ ಅವಿವೇಚನ  
ಶೀಲತ್ವಾತ್—ನ ಚ ಶೀಲಮಪಾಕರ್ತುಂ ಶಕ್ಯಂ.

ಸತ್ಯಣಾಭ್ಯವಹಾರಿ would be a man who eats food mixed with straw, *i.e.*, a man devoid of the power of discrimination, in other words, a fool. Similarly ಅರೋಚಿ or ಅರೋಚಕಿ would be a man who does not relish food until

\* A Grammar of the Kannaḍa Language (1903), preface IV.

he has completely examined it, *i.e.*, a man endowed with the power of discrimination.

The correct rendering of the sūtra would be—

Some fools, without reflection, use such a śithila thinking that no restriction applies to prose; but the wise, looking upon it as a blemish, will use it neither in prose nor in poetry.

---

## CHAPTER V.

Changes in the language. Changes in form. Phonetic decay. Emphasis. Prosthesis. Compensation. Analogy. Assimilation. Metathesis. Changes in meaning. Extension. Contraction. Amelioration. Deterioration. Decency. Euphemism. Freemasonry in words. Extension by metaphor. Changes in form of Old Kannada words when becoming Modern Kannada. Mistakes committed by authors. Some general remarks on the language. Disappearance of old and entry of new words. Words not found in classical literature but current in common speech. Some lost words that deserve restoration. Some words which are seemingly correct. False etymology. Forms given in Kannada grammars. Tamil rules of euphonic combination adopted in Kannada. Help of Tamil in the derivation of some Kannada words. Words about whose derivation Grammarians differ. Reform of the language. Advancement of the language.

### CHANGES IN THE LANGUAGE.

If there can exist a fixed and stable society, cut off from close intercourse with its neighbours and handing down unchanged its customs and institutions, it is likely to have a more or less fixed and stable language. For language is the mirror of the society that uses it, and where the society alters but little, the language, too, will alter but little. But this state of things is very rare indeed. Language requires uninterrupted intercourse between the whole body of speakers to keep it uniform; this is not, however, possible beyond a certain area, and consequently language tends to split up into dialects. Differences have also arisen from difference in climate, food and education. A language which has no manner of contact with any other resembles a stagnant pool of water and is liable to decay, while a language which does not refuse help from other languages as necessity



arises resembles a flowing river and is capable of attaining a high development.

Changes are constantly going on in a language. They are so gradual that the speakers of the language are unconscious of them. As civilisation increases language changes somewhat rapidly and words become corrupt; but grammar affords a check to this variability. In languages which have no grammar the changes go on unchecked, till they become almost unintelligible to the speakers themselves.

There are certain principles regulating the changes in a language which are of two kinds, namely, changes in form and changes in meaning. They are:—

1. Laziness (or Phonetic decay) which means economy of effort, *i.e.*, a desire to do what is to be done with the least expenditure of energy. It is

Changes in form.  
Phonetic decay.

due to this principle that words become clipped and shortened in the course of time, until it may happen that nothing is left of the original. Rapid speaking, an imperfect ear or pronunciation, and the common desire to save time and trouble are the causes of the wearing away of words in daily use. As instances may be mentioned ಕೊಸಲು corrupted from the Old Kannada ಪೊಸಂತಿರ್; ಚಾಟಿ from ಚಮ್ಮಟಿಗೆ, a *tadbbhava* of ಚಮಫಪಟ್ಟಿಕಾ; ತಂಗಳು from ತಣ್ಣೂಲು. Cp. ಅರುಮಂದಪಿಳ್ಳೈ for ಅರುಮರುಂದನ್ನಪಿಳ್ಳೈ, ಶೀಮಾರಾವ for ಶ್ರೀನಿವಾಸರಾಘವ in Tamil. Cp. also ಬಂತು for ಬಂದಿತು, ನಿಂತು for ನಿಂತಿತು in Kannada, and ಅಚ್ಚು for ಅಯಿಚ್ಚು in Tamil.

2. Emphasis is the striving after clearness and distinctness. It works in the contrary direction to phonetic decay and counterbalances it. It is according to this principle that new letters are added to words. Cp. the words *sound* and *lend* in English with the additional letter *d*; the Tamil word ಪೆಂಡು for ಪೆಣ್ and the Kannada word ಪೆಂಡಿ.

Prosthesis or the insertion of a vowel before a word beginning with a double consonant, or as is specially the case in

Prosthesis.

Tamil, before a word beginning with *y*, *r*, *l*, also comes under this head. ಇಸ್ಕೋಲು, ಇಸ್ಕಿರಿಗ್ ; ಇಯಕ್ಕರ್, ಆರಂಗಶಾಮಿ, ಆರಶ್ ಆರಸಂ, ಇಲಕ್ಕುಂ, ಉಲೋಕಂ.

What are now suffixes were once independent words with a definite meaning. But owing to carelessness, forgetfulness, laziness, economy of effort and wrong pronunciation on the part of the speakers of the language, in other words, owing to phonetic decay, they have now become mostly meaningless particles. In a literary language every syllable is watched with jealous care; but in spoken dialects phonetic decay reigns supreme. It is owing to changes such as these that the earliest written documents of a language become obscure in course of time and at last unintelligible.

In compensation, which means that the loss of a sound is compensated by the lengthening of the adjoining syllable, both phonetic decay and emphasis are at work; *e.g.*, ಮಯೂರ ಮೋರ, ಖದಿರ ಕೈರ ; ಪೊಯ್ದು ಪೋದು, ಪೆಯರ್ ಪೇರ್ ; ಅದಿನ ದಾನಿ, ಇದಿನ ದೀನಿ ; ಕೆನಕು ಶೇಕು, ಕೆನವು ಶೇಂಬು ; ಉಗುರು ಗೋರು, ಒರರ್ ರೋಲು.

3. Analogy means the mistaken application of a rule to cases to which it does not apply. According to Sayce, it is a main element of change in the signification as well as in the outward form of words; and just as phonetic decay wastes and destroys, so analogy repairs and reconstructs. The one is the agent of destruction, the other of construction, though they both spring from the same root of human laziness. The principle of analogy may be ultimately traced partly to the desire of saving trouble, partly to the natural instinct of imitation. It is easier for the vocal organs to repeat the same sound than to attempt a new one, while the repetition of the same idea or the expression of an analogous one, involves less exertion on the part of the mind. Habit is a ruling power in life, and sounds or ideas to which we are accustomed rise uncalled for to the intelligence and

the lips. A few instances of false analogy may now be given. ಕೊದ್ದು is the colloquial past participle of the root ಕೊದಿ (more correctly ಕೊದೆ). Similarly ಕದ್ದು is taken to be the past participle of a root ಕದಿ which has no existence in literary Kannada, the correct root being ಕಳ್. ಕದ್ದು is only a corrupt form of ಕಳ್ಳು, just as ಬಿದ್ದು is of ಬಿಟ್ಟು. Again, on the analogy of ಎಂತು a curious form ಕುಂತು is made use of in place of the correct form ಕುಳಿತು. Roots ending in a double consonant such as ಕಟ್ಟು, ಕುಟ್ಟು, ಮುಕ್ಕು, ನಕ್ಕು, ಕಚ್ಚು, ಮುಚ್ಚು add the suffix *itu* to form the neuter singular of the past tense : ಕಟ್ಟಿತು, ಕುಟ್ಟಿತು, ಕಚ್ಚಿತು, etc. The same suffix is also added to the past participles of verbs, which end in a double consonant : ಕೊಟ್ಟಿತು (from ಕೊಡು), ಬಿಟ್ಟಿತು (from ಬಿಡು), ಮಿಕ್ಕಿತು (from ಮಿಗು), etc. The suffix in these cases ought to be *udu*. Cp. ಪಾರ್ವಾತ್ಯ on the analogy of ಪಾಶ್ವಾತ್ಯ ; ವನಸ್ಪತಿ on the analogy of ದಿವಸ್ಪತಿ, etc.

Among other causes of changes in form may be mentioned assimilation and metathesis. In assimilation a vowel or consonant in a word becomes similar to another vowel or consonant in the same word ; *e.g.*, ಕಳುಹು for ಕಳಿಪು, ಉಸುರು for ಉಸಿರು, ಎತ್ತು for ಎತ್ತು, ಬಿದ್ದು for ಬಿಟ್ಟು. Metathesis is the euphonic displacement of consonants and vowels ; *e.g.*, ಅಲರ್ ಅರಲ್, ಎಲರ್ ಎರಲ್, ಮಲರ್ ಮರಲ್, ಮಜಲ್ ಮರಲ್ ; ತಶೈ ಶದೈ, ಕೊಪ್ಪಳ್ ಪೊಕ್ಕಳ್ ಪೊಕ್ಕಿಲಿ, ಪಡರ್ ಹರಡು.

Generally speaking, there are four ways in which the meanings of words undergo change, namely, extension, contraction, amelioration and deterioration. By extension is meant that words which once denoted only a few special objects have their meaning extended so that they now denote more things than they did before ; *e.g.*, ಎಣ್ಣೆ, ಓರೆ, ಚೆಂಬು, ಯಜಮಾನ. ಎಣ್ಣೆ (ಎಳ್ +

ನೆಯ) once denoted the oil derived from ಎಳ್, the sesamum seed, *i.e.*, gingely oil. But now it is applied not only to oils derived from various other seeds, but also to those derived from wood, etc., *e.g.*, ಬೇವಿನೆಣ್ಣೆ, ಕೈಯೆಣ್ಣೆ or ಹರಳೆಣ್ಣೆ, ಹಿಪ್ಪೆಯೆಣ್ಣೆ, ಹೊಂಗೆಯೆಣ್ಣೆ, ಸಾಸವೆಯೆಣ್ಣೆ, ಗಂಧವೆಣ್ಣೆ, ಕೊಪರಿಯೆಣ್ಣೆ, and so forth. The derivation of ಎಣ್ಣೆ was forgotten and we now have ಅಚ್ಚೆಣ್ಣೆ and ಹುಚ್ಚೆಣ್ಣೆ. ಓಲೆ once meant an ear ornament made of palm leaf, but now it means not merely an ear ornament made of palm leaf, but also one made of gold or any other material; *e.g.*, ಚಿನ್ನದ ಓಲೆ, ವಜ್ರದ ಓಲೆ, ಕಂಪಿನ ಓಲೆ, etc. ಚೆಂಬು was once applied to a copper vessel, but now it denotes in addition a vessel made of any metal or even of wood or stone; *e.g.*, ಬೆಳ್ಳಿಯ ಚೆಂಬು, ಚಿನ್ನದ ಚೆಂಬು, ಕಿತ್ತಾಳೆಯ ಚೆಂಬು, ಮರದ ಚೆಂಬು, etc. ಯಜಮಾನ once meant a man who performed and bore the expenses of a sacrifice, but now it means besides a head of a family, a respectable or elderly person. Cp. ಮರಕ್ಕಾರ್ originally a measure made of wood; but now applied to measures made of metal, etc., also. Cp. also ಯತ್ತೇ ಅಗ್ಗೇ.

On the other hand, contraction limits the use of words which were once of a wider application to some special things, *e.g.*, ನೆಯ. This word which was formerly applied even to the oils extracted from the margosa and *hippe* seeds, as also to honey (ಬೇನೆಯ), is now restricted in its use to the ghee of cows and buffaloes. ಆಡು in Old Tamil meant both victory and sheep, but now it means only sheep.

Words which once conveyed a bad sense come to be used in a good sense according to the process known as amelioration; *e.g.*, ಕೆಂದು, ಹೊಂದು. ಕೆಂದು once meant to cohabit; it now means to develop. The meaning of ಹೊಂದು was to die; it now means to obtain. In the latter sense the word is probably a corruption of ಪೊಂದು. Cp. the Tamil word ಕಳಪ್ಪು which once denoted the pleasure

derived from drinking, but is now used in the sense of pleasure in a general way.

On the other hand, deterioration tends to make words which once conveyed a good sense convey a bad sense ;  
 Deterioration. *e.g.*, ಓಜ, ಕಂಪು, ದೆವ್ವ, ದೇಗುಲ. ಓಜ once denoted a teacher ; it now means a carpenter. ಕಂಪು which once meant fragrance now means bad smell. ದೆವ್ವ meant at one time a god, but now means an evil spirit. ದೇಗುಲ once denoted a temple ; now, however, it means an unwieldy deserted house. As additional instances may be given ಹಾರುವ, ಕವಳ, ನಾತ, ತೀಚೆ, ಬಸ್ತಿ, ಅಮ್ಮ, ಬಿನ್ನಾಣ, etc.

Decency and euphemism also contribute to change in the meaning of words. In civilised society, whatever is indelicate is expressed in some disguised form, *e.g.*, to go to stool is denoted by such expressions as washing the feet and going to the backyard. This is known as ಇಡಕ್ಕರಡಕ್ಕರ್ in Tamil. ಪವ್ವಿ is usually given as an example. It means  $\bar{i}$  added to  $p$  and denotes fæces. Similarly, whatever is considered inauspicious is expressed in such a way that the inauspiciousness does not obtrude itself on one's mind ; *e.g.*, death is called ದೀರ್ಘನಿದ್ರೆ (long sleep) ; a widow is styled a ದೀರ್ಘ ಸುಮಂಗಲ ; ಅವಲಕ್ಷಣ is denoted by the Tamil expression ಎಚ್ಚೇಕಾರ್ ಲಕ್ಷಣಂ where ಎಚ್ಚೇಕಾರ್ indicates the symbols ಅ  $a$  (8) and ಎ  $va$  ( $\frac{1}{4}$ ) ; the ephemeral body is called ಮೆಯ as if it were a permanent thing ; ಅಮಂಗಲವಾರ is known as ಮಂಗಲವಾರ ; the year ಕ್ಷಯ is named ಅಕ್ಷಯ. There is also a sort of freemasonry in words, *i.e.*, a secret meaning attached to some words by certain communities or societies, which is not understood by others ; *e.g.*, ದೈಯಾಕ್ಷರ ಸಂಖ್ಯೆ means 25 among the Śrīvaishnavas ; ಗುಣಪೆಳ್ಳೈ means 3 rupees among merchants ; and ಶೊರ್ವಿಳಂಬಿ means ಕಳ (toddy). This is called ಕುಟುಂಬಕ್ಕುಟು in Tamil.

Euphemism. Freemasonry in words.

means 25 among the Śrīvaishnavas ; ಗುಣಪೆಳ್ಳೈ means 3 rupees among merchants ; and ಶೊರ್ವಿಳಂಬಿ means ಕಳ (toddy). This is called ಕುಟುಂಬಕ್ಕುಟು in Tamil.

We spoke of extension of meaning, and this extension is mostly by metaphor and transference of meaning. Such transference is known as *lakshanā* in Sanskrit—an indirect application of a word as distinguished from its literary meaning or the substitution of the name of one thing for that of another connected with it, answering in a manner to the figure metonymy. This transference is known as *ಅಗುಪೆಯರ್* in Tamil. It is of several kinds and answers in a way to the figures synecdochy and metonymy. To give a few examples:—

(1) The part is put for the whole or the whole for the part,—*ವೀಳೆಯದೆಲೆ ನ್ಬುನು*, the name of the leaf is put for the creeper ; *ತಾವರೆಮೊಗ*, the name of the creeper is used for that of the flower.

(2) The container for the contained and *vice versa*,—*ಊರೇ ಬಂದು ಸೇರಿಬಿಟ್ಟಿತು*, the village for the inhabitants ; *ದೀಪ ಒಡೆದು ಕೊಳೆಯಿತು*, the flame for the lamp.

(3) The cause for the effect and *vice versa*,—*ಕುಣ್ ಕುಣಿಯಿತು*, the metre *ಕುಣ್* for the work composed of it ; *ಕೊತ್ತು ಹುಟ್ಟಿತು*, *ತಿಂಗಳು ಮೂಡಿತು*, time and month for their cause the Sun and Moon.

(4) Measure for the thing measured,—*ಒಂದು ಸೇರು ಕೊಡು*, a measure of grain, etc. ; *ಒಂದುಮೊಳ ಬೇಕು*, a cubit of cloth, etc. ; *ಕಾಲು ನೋಯುತ್ತದೆ*,  $\frac{1}{4}$  for the limb which forms that much of the body. Cp. also *ನಡು* ; the Sanskrit *ಪಾದ* and *ಪದ್ಮ*, and the Tamil *ಅರೈ* and *ಇಡೈ*.

(5) Season for the crop of the season,—*ಕಾರು ಕೊಯ್ಯಿತು*, the rainy season for its crop.

(6) Quality for the thing possessed of it—*ಬಣ್ಣ ಉಟ್ಟಳು*, colour for cloth possessed of it.

(7) Word for its meaning,—*ಮಾತು ತಿಳಿಯಿತು*, the meaning of the word.

(8) Author for his work,—*ಮಾಘವನ್ನು*, *ಅಮರವನ್ನು*, *ಓದು*, the work of *ಮಾಘ*, of *ಅಮರ*.



(9) One thing for another resembling it,—ದಜ್ಜೆ, means a piece of wood which is flat like the *darbha* grass.

Here also may be mentioned a few of the Sanskrit words which are used in Kannada in a sense quite different from the one they bear in Sanskrit. For instance, ಕ್ಷಾಮ which means emaciated in Sanskrit means famine in Kannada. Similarly—

ಅಭಿಮಾನ means in Sanskrit pride and in Kannada affection.

ಅವಸರ means in Sanskrit opportunity and in Kannada haste.

ಅನಹ್ಯ means in Sanskrit unbearable and in Kannada disgusting.

ಭದ್ರ means in Sanskrit auspicious and in Kannada safe.

ವಿಪರೀತ means in Sanskrit contrary and in Kannada excessive.

As further examples may be given ಚಾಳೇಸ, ಸಭ್ಯ, ವ್ಯವಹಾರ, ಪ್ರಾಯ, ಖಂಡಿತ, ಬುದ್ಧಿ, ದಾಸೋಹ, ಅಗ್ರಹ, ಪ್ರಾಪ್ತಕಾರ್ಥ, ಬ್ರಹ್ಮಾಂಡ, ಆತುರ, ಸಂಭ್ರಮ, ವರ್ತಮಾನ, ಸಮಾಚಾರ, ಅಪರೂಪ, ನಿಜ, ಮರ್ಮಾದೆ, ನಿದಾನ, ವಿಶ್ವಾಸ, ಲೋಭ, ಸರಾಗ, ಶಿಕ್ಷೆ, and so forth.

As further instances of changes in form dealt with before may be mentioned some of the changes which Old Kannada words undergo when becoming Modern Kannada. These changes are somewhat similar to those which Sanskrit words undergo when becoming *tadbhava*.

(1) *I* becomes *e*—

Sanskrit.	Tadbhava.	Old Kannada.	Modern Kannada.
ಇಳಾ	ಎಳೆ	ಬಿಸು	ಬೆಸೆ
ವಿನಾಯಕ	ಬೆನಕ	ಇಸು	ಎಸೆ
ಬಿಲ್ವಪತ್ರ	ಬೆಲ್ಲವತ್ತ	ನಿನ್ನೆ	ನೆನ್ನೆ

(2) *U* becomes *o*—

Sanskrit.	Tadbhava.	Old Kannaḍa.	Modern Kannaḍa.
ತುಲಸಿ	ತೊಳಸಿ	ಕುಡು	ಕೊಡು
ಮುಖ	ಮೊಗ	ತುಡು	ತೊಡು
ಸುಧಾ	ಸೊದೆ	ಪುಗು	ಪೊಗು

(3) Conjunct letters are separated by the insertion of a vowel:—

Sanskrit.	Tadbhava.	Old Kannaḍa.	Modern Kannaḍa.
ರತ್ನ	ರತುನ	ನುಣ್ಣು	ನುಣುಪು
ಹರ್ಷ	ಹರುಷ	ಅಳ್ಳು	ಅಳುಕು
ಯತ್ನ	ಜತನ	ಪೇಟ್ಟ	ಹೇಳಿದ
ವರ್ಷ	ಬರಿಸ	ನಿಳ್ಳು	ನಿಲುಕು

(4) In conjunct consonants the first letter is assimilated to the second:—

Sanskrit.	Tadbhava.	Old Kannaḍa.	Modern Kannaḍa.
ಶುಕ್ತಿ	ಸುಕ್ತಿ	ಪೊಟ್ಟು	ಹೊತ್ತು
ಬ್ರಹ್ಮ	ಬೊಮ್ಮ	ಬಿಟ್ಟು	ಬಿದ್ದು
ರತ್ನ	ರನ್ನ	ಪರ್ಬು	ಹಬ್ಬು
ವರ್ಣ	ಬಣ್ಣ	ಪೊರ್ಕುಳ್	ಹೊಕ್ಕುಳು

(5) A *bindu* is added in some cases:—

Sanskrit.	Tadbhava.	Old Kannaḍa.	Modern Kannaḍa.
ದಾಡಿಮ	ದಾಳಿಂಬ	ಪೊಳುಮಟ್ಟ	ಹೊರವಂಟ*
ಕ್ರಮುಕ	ಕಪುಂಗು	ಎಲಹಕ್ಕ	ಎಲಹಂಕ
		(ಇಲೈಪ್ಪಾಕ್ಕಂ)	
ಮೇಢಿ	ಮೇಂಟಿ	ಒಟ್ಟೆ	ಒಂಟೆ
ಕೂಷ್ಮಾಂಡ	ಕುಂಬಳ	ಸುಟ್ಟುರೆ	ಸುಂಟುರೆ
		ಬಾಸುಳ್	ಬಾಸುಂಡೆ
		ಪಡಿಸಣಿಗ	ಹಡಿಸಂಡಿ

Among other changes which old Kannaḍa words undergo when becoming Modern Kannaḍa are:—

(1) Words ending in consonants add *u*.—ಕರ್ ಕಲ್ಲು, ಮಣ್ ಮಣ್ಣು, ತಿಣ್ ತಿನ್ನು, ನಿರ್ ನಿಲ್ಲು, ಕೊಳ್ ಕೊಳ್ಳು, ಕಾಣ್ ಕಾಣು, ಬೇಟ್ ಹೇಳು, ಕೇಳ್ ಕೇಳು, ಮೀಣ್ ಮೀನು, etc.

\* Cp. Also the words ಎಂಟು, ಹೇಂಟೆ, ಬೇಂಟೆ, ಕೋಂಟೆ, ತೋಂಟ with the corresponding Tamil words ಎಟ್ಟು, ಪೆಟ್ಟಿ, ಪೇಟ್ಟಿ, ಕೋಟ್ಟಿ, ತೋಟ್ಟಿ.

(2) Change of *p* into *h*.—ಪಂಜರ ಹಂಜರ, ಪಾದುಕೆ ಹಾಪುಗೆ, ಪಿಪ್ಪಲಿ ಪಿಪ್ಪಲಿ, ಪಾರ್ ಹಾಲು, ಪಾಪು ಹಾಪು, ಪೆಸರ್ ಹೆಸರು, ಬರ್ಪ ಬಹ, ಆಪ್ಪ ಅಹ, ಇರ್ಪ ಇಹ.

It may be mentioned here that the aspirate was unknown in the original Dravidian languages.

(3) Omission of *bindu*.—ಅಡಂಗು ಅಡಗು, ದಾಂಬು ದಾಟು, ಬೇಂಚೆ ಬೇಕೆ, ತುಳುಂಬು ತುರುಂಬು, ಕರದಿಂದಂ ಕರದಿಂದ, ಮಾಡುತ್ತಂ ಮಾಡುತ್ತ, ಮಧುವಿಗೆ ಮಧುವಿಗೆ, ಭಯದಿಂದ ಭಯದಿ, ನೋಡಿದಂ ನೋಡಿ, ರಾಮಂ ರಾಮು, ಬಂದಂ ಬಂದೆ, ವನಂ ವನ.

(4) *Bindu* is changed into *nu* or *vu*.—ಅವಂ ಅವನು, ರಾಮಂ ರಾಮನು, ಬಂದಂ ಬಂದನು, ತಂದೆ ತಂದೆನು, ತಾಂ ತಾವು, ನೀಂ ನೀವು, ನೆಲಂ ನೆಲವು, ಗುಣಂ ಗುಣವು.

(5) Change of the suffix *chu* into *isu*.—ಅಮರ್ಚು ಅಮರಿಸು, ಸಡಿಲ್ಚು ಸಡಿಲಿಸು, ಉರುಳ್ಳು ಉರುಳಿಸು, ಬಬಲ್ಚು ಬಬಲಿಸು, ತೀರ್ಚು ತೀರಿಸು.

(6) Change of *r* and *ḷ* into *r* and *ḷ*.—ಅಱು ಅರಿ, ಪೊಱು ಹೊರೆ, ಮಿಱು ಮಿರು, ಕಾಱು ಕಾರು, ನುಡಿ ನುಳಿ, ಬಾಡೆ ಬಾಳೆ, ಪೊಗಪ್ ಹೊಗಳು, ಬಾಪ್ ಬಾಳು.

Even in Tamil Buddhāmitra, the author of the Tamil Grammar *Vīraśōḷiyam*, who flourished in the 11th century, wanted to do away with the distinction between *ḷ* and *ḷ* like Hariśvara and Bhaṭṭakalanka in Kannaḍa. See his examples ಪುಗಪ್ + ದೀಪಂ = ಪುಗದೀಪಂ, ಪಾಪ್ + ನರಗು = ಪಾಪರಗು, where the combination applying to *ḷ* is prescribed for *ḷ* also.

There are a few instances of words acquiring a wrong meaning owing to the mistakes committed by authors. Decipherment of old writing in palm leaf manuscripts is a rather difficult matter not only because the forms of letters are different but also because there is no distinction made between short and long *e* and *o*, and especially in Tamil, between a consonant and the same combined with *a* [e.g., *ḥ* (*k*) *ḥ* (*ka*) *ṛ* (*r*) *ṛ* (*ra*)] owing to the absence of the upper dot, and between *ra* and the sign for the long *a* (*ṛ* and *ṛ*). The Telugu method of marking the short and long *e* and *o* does not appear till the 17th century. The same is the case

with Kannada also even till much later. The famous Jesuit C. J. Beschi (1704-1744) is credited with the introduction into Modern Tamil orthography of the distinction between the short and long *e* and *o*. Maṇḍalapurusha, the author of a Tamil lexicon called *Chūḍāmaṇi*, mistook the Sanskrit word śalalam, a porcupine or its quill, for śallam and śaragam a bee\* for śāgam—ಶಾಗ್ಗಾಕ್ಕಿನಿ ವೆಳ್ಳಾಡು ತೇಕ್ಕನುಂ ತರುಪು ತೇನೀ. In the first instance *la* was taken for *l* and in the second *ra* was taken for the sign of long *a*. So much for Tamil.

Tirumalārya, author of the *Chikadēvarājaviṇaya* and other works, has wrongly taken the word ಉಕ್ಕವ in the sense of ಉತ್ಸವ (a festival), supposing ಉಕ್ಕವ to be a *tadbhava* of ಉತ್ಸವ. But ಉಕ್ಕವ, as found in the works of Nāgachandra and other old Jaina authors, means deceit. The *tadbhava* of ಉತ್ಸವ is ಉಚ್ಚವ. In Old Kannada writing it requires some experience to distinguish between the letters *bha* and *cha* and the lack of this experience on the part of some writers of the close of the last century accounts for the form ಕಾಲಭೂರು for ಕಾಲಚೂರು found in some books on Indian History.

Language may aptly be compared to the sea owing to the ceaseless change that it undergoes, though the speakers may not be quite conscious of it. Some general remarks on the language. The sea is constantly losing water by evaporation but is at the same time being supplied with it by rivers, springs and clouds. In the same way, language gets rid of old words and is supplied with new ones. One of the *sūtras* in the Tamil grammar *Nannūl* lays down the rule that obsolete forms have to be rejected and new ones received in consonance with the progress of the times.† It is not possible to say

\* ಸರಘಾ ಮಧುಮಾಕ್ಷಿಕಾ.

† ಪಶ್ಚಯನ ಕಟಿದಲುಂ ಪುದಿಯನ ಪುಗುಡಲುಂ.

ಮಯವಲ ಕಾಲವಗೈಯಿನಾನೇ—Sūtra 462.

exactly when old words disappear and when new ones enter the language. Just as coins worn out by use lose currency, so do words in a language. Nṛipatunga says in his *Kavirājamārga* \* that Old Kannaḍa words were appropriate in old works (ಪುರಾಣಕಾವ್ಯ), but were insipid in works of his own time. He compares their use in contemporary works to an unnatural union with an old woman.† Words with which old people were familiar in their boyhood have gone out of use and words of which they had not heard then have now become current. Words not found in lexicons are creeping even into literary works. Such being the case, nothing need be said about their free entry into ordinary speech. The following are some of the words that are not found in classical literature but are current in ordinary speech :—

<p>ಅಕರಾಯ, ಅಂಚು, ಅಡಪು, ಅಲ್ಲಾಡು, ಉಗ್ರಾಣ, ಊಟ, ಏರ್ಪಾಡು, ಒತ್ತಾಸೆ, ಕುಳ್ಳ, ಕೆನ್ನೆ, ಕೊಸರು, ಗಿಡ್ಡ, ಗಿಟು, ಗೋಂದು, ಚಟುಮುಕೆ, ಚಾಳಿ, ಚಿಲುಕ, ಚೀಲ, ಜವಳಿ, ಜಿಪುಣ, ಜುಟ್ಟು, ತುಂಟ, ತೊಂದರೆ, ದಪ್ಪ, ದವಸ, ದನ, ದುಡುಕು, ನೀಸು, ಪಿಕ್ಕರಾಟ, ಬೊಂಬೆ, ಮುಂಜಾನೆ, ಮಪ್ಪು, ಮೂತಿ, ಮೋರೆ, ಯೋಚನೆ, ಮಟ್ಟ, ವಾದಿಕೆ, ಬಾದಿಗೆ, ವೆಚ್ಚ, ಸಪ್ಪೆ, ಹಾವಳಿ, ಕೀಟು.</p>	<p>ಅಕರಾಯ, ಅಂಚು, ಅಡಪು, ಅಲ್ಲಾಡು, ಉಗ್ರಾಣ, ಊಟ, ಏರ್ಪಾಡು, ಒತ್ತಾಸೆ, ಕುಳ್ಳ, ಕೆನ್ನೆ, ಕೊಸರು, ಗಿಡ್ಡ, ಗಿಟು, ಗೋಂದು, ಚಟುಮುಕೆ, ಚಾಳಿ, ಚಿಲುಕ, ಚೀಲ, ಜವಳಿ, ಜಿಪುಣ, ಜುಟ್ಟು, ತುಂಟ, ತೊಂದರೆ, ದಪ್ಪ, ದವಸ, ದನ, ದುಡುಕು, ನೀಸು, ಪಿಕ್ಕರಾಟ, ಬೊಂಬೆ, ಮುಂಜಾನೆ, ಮಪ್ಪು, ಮೂತಿ, ಮೋರೆ, ಯೋಚನೆ, ಮಟ್ಟ, ವಾದಿಕೆ, ಬಾದಿಗೆ, ವೆಚ್ಚ, ಸಪ್ಪೆ, ಹಾವಳಿ, ಕೀಟು.</p>
--	--

Some of the lost forms and words such as the following, which are terse and expressive, may with advantage be restored :—

<p>Some lost words that deserve restoration.</p>	<p>ನುಖಮಿದಂ, ಆಯಿರ್ಪಗಿಳಿ, ಬೆನ್ನನೆ, ಏಪುದು, ಕದಪು, ನಿಟ್ಟಿಸು, ನರುಗಂಪು, ಸೂಳು, ತೀಡು, ಅಲಂಪು, ಅದಟು, ನೀರ, ಪಾಂಗು, ಪೆಂಪು, ಬಿಟ್ಟು, ತನಿ, ನಿಡು, ನೆಗಳ್ಳೆ, ಸೈಪು, ಕೂರ್ಮ, ಕಡುಪು, ತರಿ ಸಲ್ಲು, ಬಿಸವಂದ.</p>
--	---

There is, however, a sort of natural selection in language according to which whatever is useless is got rid of and whatever is conducive to the advancement of the language is freely admitted.

\* I, 50.

† In my introduction to the revised edition of *Kaṇṇāṭaka-Kavicharite* Vol. I (p. XVII) I have wrongly given this comparison in connection with the mixture of Sanskrit and Kannaḍa words.



Some words have the appearance of being correct forms, but are not really so, though they can claim the authority of long usage. As instances may be mentioned ವಾಯ್‌ಕ್ಕಾರ್ for ಕಾರ್ಪಾಯ್, ವಾಯಿಲ್ for ಇಲ್ಪಾಯ್, ಮುಷ್ಟಿಲ್ for ಇಲ್‌ಮುಷ್, ತುಡಿಮರಂ for ಮರದುದಿ, ಪುಟನಗರ್ for ನಗರ್ ಪುಟಂ. ಬಾಯ್ಕಾರ್ is met with in Kannada inscriptions in the sense of ಕಾರ್ಪಾಯ್, now corrupted into ಕಾಲ್ಪೈ. ಕಾರ್ಪಾಯ್ means the mouth (ಬಾಯ್) of a stream (ಕಾರ್), i.e., a channel from a river. Similarly, ವಾಯಿಲ್ (ಬಾಯಿಲ್), corrupted into (ಬಾಗಿಲ್) stands for ಇಲ್ಪಾಯ್, the mouth (ಬಾಯ್) of a house (ಇಲ್), i.e., the door of a house. Such forms are given in Tamil grammar as examples of ಇಲಕ್ಕೂ ಪೋಲ.

A word may be said here about the etymology of some words. In all these languages mistakes are committed with regard to the derivation of words, mistakes which are mostly attributable to a lack of knowledge of the sister languages and ignorance of the science of language. In Tamil the word ನಾಕ್ಕು (tongue) is derived from the root ನಕ್ಕು to lick. This is plausible enough; but when we consider the words used in cognate languages for the tongue, namely, ನಾಲಗೆ in Kannada, ನಾಲಕ in Telugu and ನಾಲಯ in Tulu and Kodagu, we cannot but feel a doubt as to the correctness of the Tamil derivation. The Tamil word seems to have lost the letter *l* which forms an integral part of the words in the other languages. We may therefore presume that the word is not derived from the root *nāḥku* to lick but from the root *nāl* or *nēl* to hang. Again, the word ಅಮ್ಮೆಚ್ಚು a minister, is derived by some Tamil scholars from the root ಅಮ್ಮೆ to arrange, but the word is clearly a *tadbhava* of the Sanskrit word ಅಮಾತ್ಯ, a minister. Some derive the Kannada word ಮಾತು from the Sanskrit ವಾರ್ತಾ but ಮಾತು is a pure Kannada word answering to ಮಾಜ್ಜಿಮ್ in Tamil and ಮಾಟ



in Telugu. It is derived from ಮಾಟು and meant originally something said in reply.\* ಕಡಮೆ is written by some as ಕಡಿಮೆ on the supposition, perhaps, that the word is derived from the root ಕಡಿ. But compare the Telugu ಕಡಮೆ remainder, and ಕೊದವ deficiency or remainder (ಕಡಿಮೆ in Telugu means valour or increase). The correct form ಕಡಮೆ occurs in verse 89 of the Jaina work ರತ್ನಾಕರಾಧೀಶ್ವರ ಶತಕ (ಸು. 1600).

We shall now consider some of the forms given in Kannada grammars. In the compound ಅಂಗಯ್ the first word ಅಂ is stated to be a substitute for ಅಡಿ.†

Forms given in Kannada grammars.

But it is more likely that ಅಂ in a contraction of ಅಗಂ (inner portion) as stated in Tamil grammars. The nouns ಏತಂ and ಓತಂ are derived from ಏಜುತಂ and ಓದುತಂ by the elision of the syllables *ru* and *du*.‡ The real explanation of these forms is this: the *ru* of the root ಏಜು and the *du* of the root ಓದು are doubled and the suffix *am* is added. Compare the Tamil equivalents ಏಜು and ಓತ್ತು. ಓತ್ತು in Tamil for the Kannada ಓತಂ may be compared with ಮಾತು in Kannada for the Tamil ಮಾಣ್ಣು. In ಅಡುಂ ಬೊಲಂ and ಇಡಿಯುಂಬೊಲು, *bindu* is laid down for the final portion of the first words ಅಡುವ and ಇಡುವ, and it is further stated that in the second instance *u* has crept in as an increment.§ The proper explanation appears to be that in both cases *um*, the Tamil future relative participle suffix, is used. In all Kannada grammars there is a special rule enunciated for the formation of the compound ಜೇನೆಯ್ in which it is presumed that ಜೇ has become ಜೇ by the elision of its final letter.|| According

\* ಮಾಣ್ಣುಮುಂ ತಾರಾರೋ ವಾಶಲ್ ತಿಜವಾದಾರ್—*Tiruppāvai*.

† *Śabdamañidarpana*, sūtra 166: *Śabdānuśāsana*, sūtra 348.

‡ *Śabdamañidarpana* sūtra 209.

§ *Ibid.*, sūtra 170; *Śabdānuśāsana*, sūtra 333.

|| *Ibid.*, sūtra 176; *Śabdānuśāsana*, sūtra 332; *Kāvyaśālōkana*, sūtra 54; *Bhāṣabhūṣaṇa*, sūtra 148.

to the rules of euphonic combination in Tamil, this is a very ordinary change. When  $n$  following a long letter

Tamil rules of euphonic combination adopted in Kannada.

or two short letters is combined with a word beginning with  $n$  the first  $n$  disappears. ಕೋನಲ್ಲ = ಕೋನಲ್ಲ; ತೇನಯ = ತೇನಯ; ಕ

ಲನಲ್ಲದು = ಕಲನಲ್ಲದು; ಪದಿನಾನು = ಪದಿನಾನು. The Kannada ಪದಿನಾಲ್ಕು is formed on the same plan as the Tamil ಪದಿನಾನು, though the Kannada grammars say that the first word here is ಪದಿ and not ಪದಿ. Another rule in Tamil says that when  $l$  following a long letter or two short letters is combined with a word beginning with  $n$ , the  $l$  disappears. ಕಾರನಡಿ = ಕಾನಡಿ; ನಾರನೂ = ನಾನೂ. ನಾನೂ in Kannada is formed on the same principle. As other instances of compounds formed according to the Tamil rules of combination may be mentioned ಕತ್ತಾಟ and ಚಿಪ್ಪೇಡು. A Tamil rule states that when  $l$  following a short letter is combined

with  $t$  of the following word, both the letters are changed into  $rr$  (ṭṭira); e.g., ಕರತೀ = ಕರ್ತೀ; ಕರತಾಟ = ಕರ್ತಾಟ. The sound corresponding to  $rra$  being  $tta$  in Kannada, we have the form ಕತ್ತಾಟ. Another rule in Tamil enjoins the change of a sonant preceded by its nasal into a double surd in composition; e.g., ಕರುಂಬು + ವಿರ = ಕರುಪ್ಪುವಿರ; ಮರುಂದು + ಪೈ = ಮರುತ್ತುಪೈ; ಶೆಂಬು + ಏಡು = ಶೆಪ್ಪೇಡು. The Kannada word ಚಿಪ್ಪೇಡು is a corruption of ಚಿಪ್ಪೇಡು corresponding to the Tamil ಶೆಪ್ಪೇಡು which means a copper plate—ಶೆಂಬು copper and ಏಡು a plate. There are also some other forms in Kannada such as ಕೈದು, ಏನಾನು

Help of Tamil in the derivation of some Kannada words.

which require the help of Tamil to be properly understood. ಕೈದು a weapon is ಕೈಯದು in Tamil, i.e., what is held in the hand (for defence).

ಅನುಂ in ಏನಾನು, ಎತ್ತಾನುಂ, ಎಂದಾನುಂ, ಎಲ್ಲಯಾನುಂ is only the Tamil ಅಯನುಂ (ಅದೊಡಂ) from the root ಅಗ್ನು. The modern equivalent of ಅನುಂ is ಅದರೂ. Again, ನೇರ in

Kannāḍa seems to be a corruption of the Tamil ಶೇರಂಗೈ which explains itself. There are likewise some other Kannāḍa words which require some explanation as regards their etymology, e.g., ಅಬಂದು, ಬೆಕ್ಕಸಮುತ್ತು and ರಾಗಿ. ಅಬಂದು as a past participle is frequently met with in literature in the sense of having chased. Its root, which is not generally known, is ಅಬರ್ \*. The form ಬೆಕ್ಕಸಮುತ್ತು has puzzled some scholars. It is made up of the two words ಬೆಕ್ಕಸು surprise, and ಉತ್ತು, the past participle of ಉಲು (compare ಪೆಲು ಪೆತ್ತು, ಪೊಲು ಪೊತ್ತು) to feel, and means having become surprised. ರಾಗಿ is said to be derived from ರಾಘವ, a name of ರಾಮ, and is styled ರಾಮಧಾನ್ಯ by Kanakadāsa in his *Rāmadhānyacharitre*†. The spelling, ರಾಘಿ given in inscription 172 (l, 11) of the Muḷbāgal Tāluk, dated 1496, lends some support to this derivation.

I shall close this section by giving two examples of words about the derivation of which the grammarians Kēśirāja and Bhaṭṭākāṇka differ. These are ಹಗ್ಗ and ದಮ್ಮಣಿ. Kēśirāja derives ಹಗ್ಗ easily enough from the Sanskrit ಪ್ರಗ್ರಹ by postulating the elision of the final syllable *ha* of the Sanskrit word‡. The first syllable loses the *rēpha* (compare ಹದಿಹೆ from ಪ್ರತಿಷ್ಠೆ) and in the second syllable the *rēpha* is assimilated to the letter ಗ. On the other hand, Bhaṭṭākāṇka's way of getting ಹಗ್ಗ from ಪ್ರಗ್ರಹ is rather clumsy. He says under sūtra 160 that in ಪ್ರಗ್ರಹ the first syllable disappears, the *rēpha* of the second syllable is assimilated to ಗ and then the third syllable and the second interchange their places! Kēśirāja derives ದಮ್ಮಣಿ from ದರ್ಮಪಾನೀಯ, § which probably means water

Words about whose derivation Grammarians differ.

\* Pampa-Bhārata, xii, 18 Pr.—ಅಬರಂದು; Mallinātha-purāṇa, i.—ಅಬರಾಟಕ; Shikārpur Taluk Inscription 136, l. 3—ಅಬರ್ಫಂಗೆ; Do-Inscription 149, l. 43—ಅಬರ್ಫಂಗೆ.

† Karmāṭaka-Kavicharite, ii, 239.

‡ Śabdamaṇidarpaṇa, sūtra 280.

§ Śabdamaṇidarpaṇa, sūtra 293.

supplied as an act of charity. Bhaṭṭakalanka, however, derives it from a word ದ್ರಮ್ಮಣ which, according to him, means a mint, *dramma* being the name of a coin. But no explanation is forthcoming of ಅಣ, the second part of the word.

#### REFORM OF THE LANGUAGE.

The development of Kannada has not kept pace with the growth of civilisation among the Kannadigas. When the language is properly developed, there will be no difficulty in finding words for expressing new ideas. These words have to be got either by suitably altering existing words, or by coining new ones or by borrowing from other languages. Change in ideas is reflected in the words used. The language of authors must not be allowed to differ greatly from that of polite conversation. Otherwise, the two are likely to become two different languages altogether. Authors must be prevailed upon to avoid archaic forms and constructions and to use *sandhi* or euphonic combination as sparingly as possible. Special attention has to be paid to perspicuity of style which must never be allowed to become either pedantic or enigmatic. Writers will do well to bear in mind that their works are not intended for Pandits alone but for ordinary people who have neither time nor inclination to solve riddles as they go on reading. The style must be simple and easily intelligible, characteristics which are denoted by the term perspicuity. By perspicuity, according to Quintillian, care is taken, not that the hearer may understand, if he will, but that he must understand, whether he will or not. The marks of punctuation used in English may with advantage be adopted in Kannada as far as they are deemed necessary. Present day writers must see that in giving expression to new thoughts they do no violence to the genius of the language. Some writings of the present time, which abound in foreign words and idioms needlessly introduced, cannot but tend to denationalise and deprave the language. From this it is not to be understood that

foreign words are to be tabooed altogether. When found absolutely necessary, it is nothing but wisdom to welcome them. If foreign terms are more easily understood than any Kannaḍa or Sanskrit equivalent, it would be mere affectation not to use them.\* But every attempt should be made to maintain the purity of the language. I cannot do better than quote a writer in the New York "*Round Table*" in this connection. He says, "The corrupter of a language stabs straight at the heart of his country. He commits a crime against every individual of the nation, for he throws a poison into a stream from which all must drink. He wrongs himself first, and afterwards every man and woman whose native speech he mars. It is the duty of every educated man to guard zealously the purity of his native tongue. He who hunts down and pillories a slang phrase, a vulgarity, a corruption of any kind, is a public benefactor. In the fulfilment of the sacred trust which rests on him as an educated man, he adds a stone to the bulwark of his nation's safety and greatness."

I must also utter a word of caution. The growth of a language being natural and unconscious, reforms ought not to be forced but must be introduced with care at the proper time.

#### ADVANCEMENT OF THE LANGUAGE.

The advancement of Modern Kannaḍa began in the first half of the 19th century during the reign of the Mysore king, Krishnarāja Oḍeyar III, who was a munificent patron of all kinds of literary merit and afforded special encouragement to the production of Kannaḍa versions of all the more important Sanskrit works. The last quarter of the century may be said to have witnessed a revival of Kannaḍa learning. Under the late Chāmarājendra Oḍeyar of Mysore, encouragement was given to the production of dramatic works of a high order, which supplanted the rude dramas known as *Yakshagānas*. In 1889 a school called the *Karṇāṭaka*



Bhāshōjjivini was started for imparting a high standard of education in Kannada. It was subsequently converted into a Government Normal School, and has now become the Training College. The Trustees of the Dēvarāja Bahadur Charities have been encouraging the higher study of Kannada by giving suitable rewards to authors of good works. The Karnāṭaka-Vidyāvardhaka-Sangha of Dharwar has likewise done good service in this line. The first Kannada monthly journal in Mysore, the *Hitabōdhini*, was started in 1881. It contained articles on scientific and other subjects of general interest and did important service to the Kannadigas during its career of about 10 years. Of the journals subsequently started, the most important from the point of view of the advancement of the language are the *Kāvyamañjarī*, styled later on the *Kāvyakalānidhi*, and the *Granthamāle*, devoted, respectively, to the publication of old and modern Kannada works. The former did excellent service to the country by bringing to light rare Kannada works of great literary merit; it is however to be deplored that it has ceased to exist owing chiefly to the withdrawal of Government support. The latter affords facilities for authors to publish their works and brings within the reach of the Kannada public works in English or Sanskrit by means of translations and adaptations. Even this journal is in a moribund condition owing mostly to the same cause mentioned in connection with the other. Under the fostering care of our beloved sovereign, Śrī Krishnarāja Odeyar Bahādur, considerable literary activity is observable on all sides. Educated men have begun in earnest to enrich Kannada literature and promote the study of the language by supplying dainty pabulum in the shape of original works, translations and adaptations. In 1915 an association named the "Kannada Sāhitya Parishat" or "Kannada Academy" including representatives from all parts of the Kannada country, was formed, having for its objects not only the study of past literature and the encouragement of present writers of merit, but also the cultivation



and improvement of the language by the unification of dialects, the fixing of scientific terminology and the formation of a common literary style. The Parishat publishes a quarterly journal which contains useful articles bearing on the language and its literature. The Mysore University, which came into existence in 1916, has been doing something in the way of encouragement to Kannada studies and authors. The Karnāṭaka Sanghas attached to the constituent colleges of the University and other similar ones have also been trying to do something in this line. Finally, H. H. the Maharaja, with his keen interest in the revival of Kannada learning, has graciously instituted an annual poetical competition in Kannada with suitable prizes to the first three of the successful competitors.

With all this it has to be stated that the encouragement afforded to the advancement of the language of the country is very inadequate. Some years ago, there used to be a decent sum in the educational budget earmarked for the encouragement of authors. We do not hear of it now. The interest of the University, too, in the promotion of the language appears to have diminished in some degree, judging from the continual decrease in the budget allotments made for this purpose. Encouragement of students and authors is a *sine qua non* for the advancement of the language. It is therefore absolutely necessary that liberal sums should be allotted in the budgets of the University and the Education Department for the encouragement of authors. It is, indeed, a curious anomaly that the business of the courts and offices in Mysore should all be mainly transacted in a foreign tongue and not in the language of the country. The sooner this anomaly is got rid of the better. The State of Mysore has a special mission to discharge in relation to the learned world of Orientalists in general, and to Karnāṭaka and South India in particular, in vindicating the claims and promoting a healthy revival of the culture of its pithy and expressive language.

## WORKS CONSULTED.

---

- BHATTAKALANKA : Śabdānuśāsana.  
 BROWN, C. P. : Telugu Grammar.  
 BUDDHAMITRA : Viraśōliyam.  
 BURNELL : South Indian Palaeography.  
 CALDWELL : Comparative Grammar of the Dravidian Languages.  
 CHELVAKESAVARAYA MUDALIAR : Tamil.  
 COWELL : Short Introduction to Prākṛit.  
 CUST : The Modern Languages of the East Indies.  
 " Linguistic and Oriental Essays.  
 FLEET : Dynasties of the Kanarese Districts.  
 GRIERSON AND STEN KONOW : Linguistic Survey of India,  
 Vol. IV.  
 KITTEL : Kannada Grammar.  
 " Kannada-English Dictionary, Introduction.  
 KESIRAJA : Śabdamanīdarpaṇa.  
 MAX MULLER : Science of Language.  
 " Selected Essays.  
 NAGAVARMA II : Kāvyaśālōkana.  
 " Bhāṣābhūṣaṇa.  
 NANNAYYA BHATTA : Āndhraśabdachintāmaṇi.  
 NARAYANA RAO, H. : A Short Story of Kanarese.  
 NRIPATUNGA : Kavirājamārga.  
 OPPERT : Classification of Languages.  
 PAVANANDI : Nannūl.  
 PIELE : Philology.  
 RAGHUNATHA RAO : Vyākaraṇōpanyāsa-manjari.  
 SAYCE : Principles of Comparative Philology.  
 " Introduction to the Science of Language.  
 SESHAGIRI SASTRI : Aryan and Dravidian Philology.  
 " Tamil Philology.  
 " Telugu Philology.  
 SRINIVASA IYENGAR, M. : Tamil Studies.  
 STEN KONOW : The Aryan Gods of the Mitāni People  
 (Royal Frederick University Publications of the Indian  
 Institute) Kristiania 1921.  
 SUBBA RAO : Telugu Literature.  
 SURYANARAYANA SASTRY : History of the Tamil Language.  
 SWEET : The History of Language.

VAMANA : Kāvyaṅkāra-sūtra.

WHITNEY : Language and the Study of Language.

Journal of the Royal Asiatic Society.

Indian Antiquary.

Journal of the American Oriental Society.

Modern Review.

Mysore Archæological Series.

Travancore Archæological Series.

Cambridge History of India.

Prākṛitaśabda-pradīpikā.

Śambhuraḥasya, etc.

---

# INDEX.

	PAGE		PAGE
<b>A</b>		Annual Report Archaeologi- cal Survey of India	12n
Aborigines	... 9	Anyadēśya	108, 119
Abstract nouns	... 106	Apabhṛmśa	... 31
Accad	... 13	Appellative verbs	... 99
Accadian	... 13	Arabia	... 2
Accadians	9, 10	Arabic	... 119
Adi-Pampa	... 46	Arabitæ	... 17n
Aḍittanallur	... 11	Arava	... 17n
Adjectives	19, 75, 109	Aravam	... 30
Advancement of the Language	... 154	Archaic Kannaḍa	... 46
Aegean	... 13	Archbishop Trench	... 22
Affiliation of the Dravidian Languages	... 4-6	Arōchigaḷ	... 135
Africa	... 1	Arsha	... 31
<i>Aḡanānūru</i>	38, 48	Aruṇagirinādar	120n
Agara Inscription	... 130	Aryan Brāhmaṇas	... 2
Agastya	31-33	<i>Aryan Gods of the Mitani People</i>	... 15
Agglutination	4-6, 13	Aryan languages 1, 3, 6, 10, 15,	21, 22
Agglutinative languages	3, 6	Aryans	10, 12, 24, 30
<i>A Grammar of the Kannaḍa Language</i>	135n	Aryan Vernaculars	19, 22-24, 26-28, 97
Agupeyar	... 143	Asia	... 6
Aitarēya-Brāhmaṇa	... 33	Asia Minor	9, 12
Algonquin	... 19n	Aśōka	33, 47
Allophylia	... 6	Aśōka alphabet	51-54
Ambalakkaḍu	... 31	Aśōka characters	52, 55
Amelioration	... 141	Aśōka script	53-55
America	... 1	Aśōka symbol	52, 53
Amōghavarsha I	... 44	Assimilation	... 140
Analogy	... 139	Assyrian	... 13
Anantapur	... 16	Atharvaṇāchārya	... 33
Ancient Kannaḍa	102, 132	<i>Attisūḍi</i>	... 115
Andaræ	... 33	Aundh State	... 16
Aṇḍayya	... 115	Aupavibhaktikas	... 73
Andhra	31, 38	Avvai	... 115
<i>Andhrachintāmaṇi</i>	... 126	Aydam	... 56
Andhrarāya	... 33		
Andhras	... 8	<b>B</b>	
Anglo-Saxon	22, 23	Babylon	... 11
Anmolittogai	... 107	Babylonian culture	12, 13, 20n

	PAGE		PAGE
Bādaga 14, 16, 30, 36-39, 44, 57, 60, 74		Brāhūī 9, 14, 17, 18, 23, 28, 29, 83, 84	
Bādagas 37, 38, 48		Brigel ...	44
Bādāmi 9, 130		Brihaspati ...	33
Bādāmi Cave Inscription 129		<i>Brihatsamhitā</i> 9,	34
Bālāghāt ...	17	British Districts ...	46
Ballāla II ...	38	British Museum ...	11
Balūchi ...	23	Brown ...	44
Balūchistān 9, 11, 14, 17, 17n		<i>Brown's Grammar</i> ...	127
Bāṇa ...	48	Buddhamitra ...	146
Banavāsī ...	47	Buddhism ...	11
Bangalore District ...	130	Buddhist Missionary ...	47
Bāsim ...	17	Burnell ...	51
Basque ...	4		
Bay of Bengal ...	15	C	
Behistun tablets 9, 20, 75		Caldwell 4-7, 9, 22, 24, 25, 32, 34, 44, 76, 115, 116.	
Belgaum 16, 45		Campbell ...	44
Bellary ...	16	Canara District ...	16
Bēlūr ...	49	Cape Comorin 13, 15	
Belvola ...	46	Carey ...	116
Bengal Presidency ...	16	Carnātic ...	34
Bengali dialect 8, 14, 15, 97		Case 18, 72-75	
Berar 16, 17		Caucasus ...	6
Berchi 43, 147		Causative verbs ...	98
Bettarasa ...	38	Cave characters 51-53	
Bezwada 46, 124		Cave numerals ...	52
<i>Bhārata</i> ...	46	Cave symbol ...	52
<i>Bhāshābhūshaṇa</i> 56, 150n		Ceded Districts ...	15
<i>Bhattākālanka</i> 106, 121, 123, 134n, 146, 152, 153		Celtic 2, 4	
Bhīlī 14, 17, 14		Celts 2, 5	
Bhēmēsvara ...	33	Central Asia ...	13
Bidar ...	16	Central India ...	33
Bihārī ...	26	Central Provinces 14, 16, 17	
Bijāpur ...	45	Ceylon 10, 14, 15, 48	
Bijjavara ...	49	Ceylonese Buddhist Chronicle ...	47
Bindu 72, 74		Ceylonese chronicles ...	48
Bolan pass ...	9	Chaldea ...	11
Bombay Presidency ...	16	Chālūkya ...	49
<i>Books of Kings</i> ...	10	Chāmarājānagar ...	37
Bowringpet 13 ...	130	Champu composition ...	132
Brāhmaṇas ...	115	Chanda ...	17
Brāhmanical adaptation 51		Chandragiri 15, 16	
Brahmasūtrās ...	9	Changālva king 38, 49	
Brāhmī 36, 51, 52			

	PAGE		PAGE
Changes in form	... 138	Damirice	... 9
Changes in meaning	138, 140	Danḍi	121, 122
Changes in Old Kannāḍa		Dāntidurga	... 48
when becoming Modern		Daphlapur	... 16
Kannāḍa	... 144ff	Darius Hystaupes	... 204
Changes in the language	137ff	Darve Gōṇḍ	... 17
Chennapattana	... 49	Davidā	... 8, 9
Chēra	... 48	Daviḷa	... 8
Chēra king	... 48	Decency	... 142
Chicācōle	... 15	Declension of nouns	... 69
Chikadēvarājaviḷaya	... 147	Dekhan	49, 55
Chikkanāyakanahalli	... 49	Deoghar Fort	... 36
China	... 6	Derivations about which	
Chinese Language	... 1, 3	grammarians differ	... 152
Chitaldrug	... 49	Derivative nouns	... 107
Chōla	... 48	Dēśināmamālā	... 117
Chōla king	... 48	Dēśya	108, 109, 115
Chōlās	... 51	Deterioration	... 142
Chotā Nāgpur	... 14	Dēvalāpura Inscription	... 130
Christian era	10, 34, 35	Dēvanāgari	51-55
Chronicles	... 10	Dēvarāja Bahadur Charities	155
Chūdāmaṇi	... 147	Dharmarāja	... 33
Classical Kannāḍa	128, 132	Dharwar	45, 155
Classical Tamil	... 95	Dialects of Kannāḍa	14, 36, 38,
Coimbatore	... 16	40, 44	
Colebrooke	... 116	Dialectic change	... 58
Committee of Publication	7	Dialectic interchange	... 62
Comparative Grammar	... 44	Disappearance of old and	
Compensation	... 139	entry of new words	... 147
Compound nouns	... 107	Dokri	... 11
Condemned forms have be-		Dramiḍa	... 9, 30
come current	... 134	Dramiḍōpanishatsangati	9
Contraction	... 141	Dramils	... 8, 9
Coorg	16, 38, 49	Dramiḷaa	... 9
Coorgs	... 38	Draviḍa	... 9, 30
Cornwall	... 2	Drāviḍa	... 8
Coromandel coast	... 34	Drāviḍāchāra	... 8
Cretans	... 12	Drāviḍas	... 19n
Crete	11, 12	Draviḍian alphabets	50, 51
Cust	... 5, 20	Draviḍian dialects	14, 44, 96,
		116	
		Draviḍian languages	2-8, 10,
		13-15, 17, 20-23, 25-28, 30,	
		32, 36, 42-44, 52, 55, 57, 69,	
		72, 75, 79, 81, 83, 101, 102,	
		107, 114-116, 119, 146	
		11	
<b>D</b>			
Dakshiṇa-Mahārāṣṭra	... 45		
Damiḷa	... 8, 9		
Damirica	... 9		







	PAGE		PAGE
<b>K</b>		Kaṇva	... 33
<i>Kabbigarakūva</i>	93, 115	Karahāṭaka-prānta	... 45
Kadamba	... 49	Karavīra Ilākha	... 45
Kadur District	... 129	Karhāḍa	... 45
Kaḷabhras	... 48	Karhaṭāka	... 45
Kaḷachurya	... 49	Kar-nādu	34, 35
Kaḷale	... 49	Karṇāta	31, 34, 35, 49
Kalās inscription	... 47	Karṇāṭaka	34, 48, 49, 156
Kālēśvara	... 33	Karṇāṭaka-Bhāshōjjivini	
Kalyānapuri	... 16	154-5	
<i>Kamba-Rāmāyaṇam</i>	... 101	<i>Karṇāṭaka-Kavicharite I</i>	148n
Kanakadāsa	... 152	<i>Karṇāṭaka-Kavicharite II</i>	121,
Kanarese	16, 36, 37	152n	
Kanchi	... 48	Karṇāṭaka-prānta	... 45
Kannaḍa	14, 17-19, 23, 24,	Karṇāṭaka-Sanghas	... 156
28-30, 32, 34-47, 50, 52-90,		Karṇāṭaka-Vidyāvardhaka-	
92-116, 118, 119, 120n, 122-		Sangha	155
128, 132, 133, 138, 144, 146,		Karṇāṭas	8, 34, 48
147, 148n, 149-156		Karnūl	... 15
Kannaḍa Academy	... 155	Karunāḍagan	... 34
Kannaḍa alphabet	51, 55-58	Karunāḍar	... 34
Kannaḍa characters	... 55	Karu-nāḍu	... 35
Kannaḍa country	35, 71	Kāṣi	... 31
Kannaḍa districts	... 45	<i>Kathāsaritsāgara</i>	... 34
Kannaḍa grammar	43, 56, 150,	Kattala	... 111
151		Kāvēri	... 44
Kannaḍa Inscriptions	45, 46,	<i>Kavirājamārga</i>	44, 121, 148
149		<i>Kāvyaḍarṣa</i>	121, 122
Kannaḍa Language	16, 35, 41,	<i>Kāvyaśālānīdhi</i>	... 155
44, 46, 56, 127, 128		<i>Kāvyaśālānīdhi</i>	... 135
Kannaḍa Literature	123, 131,	<i>Kāvyaśālānīdhi</i>	... 155
155		<i>Kāvyaśālānīdhi</i>	... 34
Kannaḍa manuscripts	... 45	<i>Kāvyaśālānīdhi</i>	121, 122, 150n
Kannaḍa people	... 46	Keladi	... 49
Kannaḍa poets	... 35	Kerala king	... 48
Kannaḍa Sahitya Parishat	155	Kern	... 9
Kannaḍa-Telugu	... 53	Kēśirāja	106, 134, 135, 152
Kannaḍa-Telugu alphabet	50	Kēśirāja's 60th sūtra	... 134
Kannaḍa-Telugu group	... 52	Khoṇḍ	14, 16
Kannaḍa versions	... 154	Kisuvola	44, 47
Kannaḍa works	... 155	Kittel	43, 132, 133, 135
Kannaḍiga	... 108	Kittel's Dictionary	120n, 128
Kannaḍigas	17n, 30, 35, 43,	Koḍagu	14, 16, 30, 36, 38, 40,
47-51, 153, 155		44, 78, 149	
Kannaḍu	... 35	Koḍagas	... 38
		Kolāmi	14, 17, 18, 24

	PAGE		PAGE
Kolar District	... 130	Madras Epigraphical Report	
Kalārian	... 15	46n	
Kolhāpur	16, 45	Madras Presidency	... 43
Kongālva	... 49	Madura	16, 51
Konkan	... 49	Māgaḍi	... 49
Kopapa	44, 47	Magyārs	... 7
Koppa 37	129	Mahābhārata	... 8, 33
Koppa 38	129	Mahādēva	38, 47
Kōsar	... 49	Mahākūta	... 9
Kōta 14, 16, 30, 36-39		Mahākūta Inscription	... 130
Kōtas	... 37	Mahālakshmi Temple	... 45
Kōte	... 49	Mahārāshtra	15, 45
Krillingas	... 134	<i>Mahat</i>	... 69
Krishnamacharya, Pandit S	43	<i>Mahāvamśa</i>	... 8, 47
Krishnarāja Odeyar III	... 154	<i>Mahiṣha</i>	... 48
Krishnarāja Odeyar Bahādur		Mahisha-Maṇḍala	... 47
155		Mahiṣhāpura	38, 48
Kūi 14, 16, 18, 19, 23, 24, 28		Mahiṣha-rāshtra	... 48
Kulūkkuri	... 142	Mahrāṭhi 14, 15, 26, 45, 46,	
Kumārilabhātta	8, 17n	84, 119, 133	
Kuntaḷa country	... 47	Mahrāṭhi people	... 46
Kurukh 14, 16, 18, 19, 23, 28,		Mahrāṭta	... 45
29		Mahrāṭta country	15, 44, 45
Kuṛumba 14, 16, 18, 30, 38, 39		Mahrāṭta district	... 45
		Mahrāṭta empire	... 45
		Mahrāṭtas	... 8, 46
<b>L</b>		<i>Maisa</i>	... 48
Lakshaṇā	... 143	Maisa-nāḍu	... 48
Lakshmisena Maṭha	... 45	Major Cole	... 44
Lanka	... 33	Majors	... 69
Lapps	... 18n	Malabar	... 31
Larkhana	... 11	Malabar coast	15, 31, 51
Lasthiyavva	... 46	Maladhāridēva	... 111n
Latin	22, 23, 52	Malayālam 14, 15, 18-20, 26,	
Lemuria	... 9	28-32, 51, 57, 62, 72, 73,	
<i>Linguistic Survey of India</i>		75, 78, 83, 84, 94, 103, 115,	
16, 44		125.	
<i>Lost Cities of Ceylon</i>	... 48n	Malayāli	... 108
Lost words deserving of		Malayālis	... 44
restoration	148	Malavar	... 31
		<i>Mallināthapurāṇa</i>	... 152n
<b>M</b>		Mālto 14, 16, 18, 23, 28, 29	
Māchēnahalli Plates	... 130	Māmūlanār	... 48
Maddagiri	... 49	Maṇḍalapurusha	... 147
Madras Districts	... 16	Maṇḍla	... 17
		Mangalēsa	... 9

	PAGE		PAGE
Mangalore	... 15	Mysore University	... 156
Manu	... 8		
Manujaradēva	... 46	N	
Mārgavibhāga	... 122		
Maurya Emperor	... 47	Nāḍus	... 38
Mauryas	... 49	Nāgachandra	... 147
Max Muller	4n, 3, 3n, 5	Nagavarma II	121-123
Mediæval Kannaḍa	128, 132, 133	Nagpur	... 16
Mediterranean	12, 13	Nāiki	14, 17, 24
Medo-Persian	... 20n	Nakkīrar	38, 48
Mercury	... 10	<i>Naunūl</i>	92, 96, 147
Mesopotamia	12, 13	Narmada	13, 48
Metathesis	... 140	<i>Narundogai</i>	... 115
Metonymy	... 143	Nayasēna	... 133
Minors	... 69	Neduñjeliyan	48, 49
Mirāj	... 45	Negative mood	... 98
Mistakes committed by authors	... 146	Nellore	... 34
Mistakes of authors	146	Nēpāl	... 49
Modern Kannaḍa	55, 56, 58, 62-64, 66, 68, 68n, 70, 71, 74, 84, 86, 87, 90n, 93, 96, 97, 105, 106, 121, 123-128, 132, 133, 144, 145, 154.	New York	... 154
<i>Modern Review</i>	... 12n	Niḍugal	... 49
Modern Tamil	54, 56, 74, 80, 83, 99, 100, 147	Nilgiris	16, 24, 37, 48
Modern Tamil character	... 51	Nilgunda inscription	... 47
Mohanjo-Daro	... 11	Nizam's Dominions	... 16
Mōhūr	... 49	Nolamba	... 49
Mongols	... 2	Nominal inflexions	... 69
Moors	... 33	Nominative	... 72
Mōriyar	... 48	Non-Aryan	... 2
Mudigere	... 49	Non-Dravidian Languages	123
Muhammadans	33, 34	Non-Sanskritic	... 27
Mulbāgal	172, 152	Non-Semitic	... 13
Munḍa	18, 19n	Normal school	... 155
Mysore	15, 16, 34, 35, 37, 38, 47-49, 155, 156.	North American	... 4
Mysore Archæological Report	36n, 129n, 130n	Northern and Southern Schools in Kannaḍa	12ff, 121-124
Mysore country	... 48	Northern India	23, 44
Mysore district	... 130	Northern School in Kannaḍa	123, 124
Mysore king	... 154	North Kanara	... 16
Mysore State	... 47	North-West India	... 11
		Nouns	... 109
		Nripatunga	44-47, 121-124, 128, 148
		Nuba	... 19n
		Nuggehalli	... 49
		Numerals	77ff, 109

O	PAGE	PAGE
Old Kanarese	36-37	Pāvagaḍa 11, 130
Old Kannāḍa	38, 55, 64, 66, 71, 84, 86, 87, 93, 94, 96, 97, 106, 125-128, 138, 144, 145, 147, 148	Pemba-Vīrappa ... 38
Old Kannāḍa alphabet	... 57	Peninsula 8, 15
Old Malayāḷam	... 9, 50	Peninsular India ... 13
Old Persian	... 20n	<i>Pēragattiyam</i> ... 31
Old Tamil	54, 74, 78, 83, 98, 101, 141	Percival ... 44
Old Telugu	... 46	Persia 9, 13
Old Vaṭṭeḷuttu	... 51	Persian 23, 119
Onkunda	44, 47	Phonetic decay 125, 138, 139
Ophir	... 10	Phonetic system 56, 57
Orāyon	14, 16	Phonology ... 50
Orientalists	... 156	Pictographic writing ... 12
Orissa	13, 16	<i>Pingalandai</i> ... 30n
Oritae	... 17n	Piriyāpattāṇa ... 49
Oriya	... 15	Pithy Kannāḍa ... 46
Oxyrhynchus	... 36	Pliny ... 33
<b>P</b>		Polavīra ... 129
		Polysynthetic languages 3, 4
<i>Paiśachi Bṛihat-katha</i>	... 34	Ponnagaṇṭi Telaganna ... 115
Palagannaḍa	... 128	Pope, Dr. 4-6, 43, 44
Pālegārs	... 49	Portuguese 31, 32, 119
Pāli	8, 117	Porunan ... 48
Pallava king	... 48	<i>Porunarāṭṭruppadai</i> ... 78
<i>Pampa Bhārata</i>	... 152n	Prākṛit 8, 33, 116, 117
<i>Pampa Rāmāyaṇa</i>	... 197	Prākṛita-bhava 116, 117
Pancha-Drāviḍa	8, 14, 15	Prākṛits ... 26
Pancha Gauḍa	... 8	Prākṛita-sama 116, 117
Pandits	... 153	Pre-Aryan civilisation ... 9
Pandya country	... 48	Present tense ... 96ff
Pandya king	34, 48, 49, 51	Primitive Old Kaunāḍa 128, 132
Pandya kingdom	... 51	<i>Principles of Comparative</i>
Pāṇini	... 31	<i>Philology</i> ... 3n
Papyri	... 36	Pronominal terminations 93
Parāśara	... 8	Pronouns ... 81ff
Participial nouns	... 105	Pronunciation ... 17
Parushni	... 11	Prosthesis ... 138
Passive voice	... 102	Proto-Elamite ... 11
Past and future tenses	... 94ff	Ptolemy ... 35
Paunnata	... 35	Pulakēṣi II ... 45
		Pulicāt ... 15
		Puligere 44, 46, 47
		Puṇisa ... 37
		Punjab 11-13
		Punnāḍ ... 49
		Punnāḍu ... 35



	PAGE		PAGE
Punnāṭa	... 35	<i>Śabdānuśāsana</i>	56, 106, 121,
Purāṇas	... 9	123, 150n	
Pure Kannaḍa	46, 47, 55	<i>Śabdaratnākara</i>	... 115
Pūrvada Halagannaḍa	... 128	Śaḍaiyan Parāntaka	34, 48
Pusad Taluqa	... 17	Salem	... 16
Pushpadanta	... 33	Saluva	... 49
		<i>Sambhuraḥasya</i>	... 31
<b>Q</b>		Samskrita-bhava	... 116
Quintillian	... 153	Samskrita-sama	... 116
		<i>Samvatsaradul</i>	... 46
<b>R</b>		Sanskrit	3, 5, 8, 9, 14, 20-27,
Raghunatha Rao	123, 124,	31-34, 42, 43, 45, 50, 51,	
126-128		55, 56, 80, 108, 114-119,	
Railway train	... 108	121, 123, 127, 132, 133,	
Rājamahāl	... 14	143-145, 147, 148n, 149,	
Rājamahāl Hills	... 16	152	
Rājamahāli	14, 16	Sanskrit Avyayas	... 121
Rājaśekhara	... 34	Sanskrit derivatives	... 55
Rakkhita	... 47	Sanskritic language	... 52
<i>Rāmādhānyacharitre</i>	... 152	Sanskrit pandits	... 31
Rāmānuja	... 9	Sanskrit works	... 154
Rāmāyaṇa	... 33	Sāntara	... 49
Ranna	... 46	Santebennūr	... 49
Rāshtrakūṭa king	44, 48, 49	Sarawān	... 17
<i>Ratnākaraḍhīśvara Sataka</i>	150	Sargon I	... 13
Raṭṭa	... 49	Satara	... 16
Rāvaṇa	... 33	Satara district	... 45
Rāvi	... 11	Saṭhakōpa	... 9
Reddi chiefs	... 46	<i>Sati-saptami</i>	... 134
Reform of the language	153	Satrinābhyavahārigal	... 135
Relative participle	... 101	Saturn	... 10
Report on the Hindu and		Saxon	... 2
Buddhist Monuments	36n	Sayce	2n, 3n, 11, 139
Rice	... 43	Science of Comparative	
Rigvēdic	... 11	Philology	... 7
Rishabhadēva	... 36	<i>Science of Language</i>	... 2n
Roman	10, 25	Scythian	1, 4-7, 20n
Roots	... 88ff	Second case	... 73
<i>Round Table</i>	... 154	Semite	... 13
Royal Asiatic Society of		Semitic	1, 6, 7, 52
Great Britain and Ire-		Sēnavāra	... 49
land	... 11	Śenguttuvan	... 48
<b>S</b>		Seshagiri Sastri	5, 43
<i>Śabdamaṇidarpana</i>	84, 106,	Seventh case	... 75
134, 150n, 152n		Sēvuṇa	... 49
		Shaṭpadi metre	... 133



	PAGE		PAGE
<i>Tantravārtika</i>	... 17n	Tōdas	... 37
Tārānātha	... 9	Tōdavar	... 37
<i>Tatpurusha</i>	... 60	<i>Tolkāppiyam</i>	31, 96
<i>Tatsama</i>	108, 114-116	Training College	... 155
Tatsama and Tadbhava	114ff	Travancore	... 15
Telinga	... 33	Triennial Gold Medal	... 11
Telingana	33, 34	Trikalinga	... 33
Telugu	6, 14, 15, 17-20, 23, 24, 26, 28-30, 32-34, 36, 46, 50, 52-54, 57, 60-90, 92-106, 108-111, 114-117, 119, 123- 127, 132, 146, 149, 150.	Trilinga	... 33
Telugu alphabet	51, 57	<i>Trilingaśabdānuśāsana</i>	... 33
Telugu author	... 33	Trivāndrum	... 15
Telugu country	33, 34, 46	Tulu	14, 16, 17, 19, 30, 36-38, 40, 44, 57, 68, 75, 78, 88, 125, 149.
Telugu grammar	33, 75	Tulus	... 38
Telugu influence	127, 128	Tumkur District	... 130
Telugu Inscription	46, 50, 57	Tuñjattu Eluttachchan	... 32
Telugu kings	... 46	Turanian	1, 3-5
Telugu Language	... 56	Turkish	... 18n
Telugu man	... 108	Turks	... 2
Telugu pandits	... 33		
Telugus	17n, 30, 33, 35, 44, 50, 51	U	
Telugu Vaidumba Inscription	46	Ummattūr	... 49
Telungu	... 33	Ur	... 11
Tenugu	... 33	Ural-Altaic	6, 18
Tenungu	... 33		
Teutonic	... 4	V	
Thāṇa	... 46	Vadugar	33, 48
Third and fifth cases	... 74	Vadugu	... 33
Tidiyan	... 48	Vaidarbha School	121, 123
Tigula	... 31	Vaidumba	... 49
<i>Times Literary Supplement</i>	... 13n	Vaishnavas	... 133
Tinnevelly District	11, 51	Vāmana	... 135
Tiramiḍa	... 9	Vappuvanna	... 46
Tirthankara	... 36	Varāhamihira	8, 9, 34
<i>Tiruchchandaviruttam</i>	... 83	Vattēluttu	51-54
Tirumalārya	... 147	Vattēluttu Script	... 52
<i>Tiruppāvai</i>	150n	Velvikuḍi Plates	34, 48
Tiruttakkadēvar	... 30n	Verbal nouns	104, 105
<i>Tiruvāymoli</i>	... 9	Verbal participle	... 102
Tivula-gaṇa	... 9	Verbal roots	... 109
Tōda	14, 16, 24, 30, 36-39, 44, 74	Verbs	... 88ff
		Vijayanagar	... 49
		<i>Vikramārjuna Vijaya</i>	... 46
		Vindhya	... 13

	PAGE		PAGE
Viraśaiva authors	... 133	Western Asiatic	... 13
<i>Viraśokiyam</i>	... 146	Western Media	... 20n
Visarga	... 56	Whitney	... 5, 6
Vishṇuvardhana	... 37	Wilkins	... 116
Vocabulary	108ff	Words not found in litera-	
Vocalic harmony	... 6	ture but current in com-	
Vocative case	... 75	mon speech	... 148

## W

Wales	... 2
Wārdha	... 17
West Coast	... 51
Western Asia	... 10

## Y

<i>Yakshagānas</i>	... 154
<i>Yayāti-charitra</i>	... 115
Yuddhamalla	... 124

